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THE SECOND ANNUAL REPORT OF TITLE I OF THE ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION ACT OF 1965 SCHOOL YEAR 1966-67.

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This report overviews and summarizes the findings of studies of nationwide Title I programs during the 1966-67 school year. It has been found that there were increases in expenditures for instructional services and the purchase of equipment, and more States invested in the programs than during the previous year. To explain the effect of the programs, in separate sections the report discusses the educational and socioeconomic background of the participating disadvantaged students, and examines specifically the nature of schools in urban areas. One section presents the findings of a study of the effect of Title I on reading and arithmetic achievement as measured by standardized tests (Dayton Study), and another presents brief digests of the annual reports of the programs in the individual states, which highlight their major achievements and exemplary projects. A new survey instrument for obtaining data on Title I participants during their third year of operation is also briefly described. Extensive appendixes and charts and tables offer specific data. (EF)

TITLE I / YEAR I

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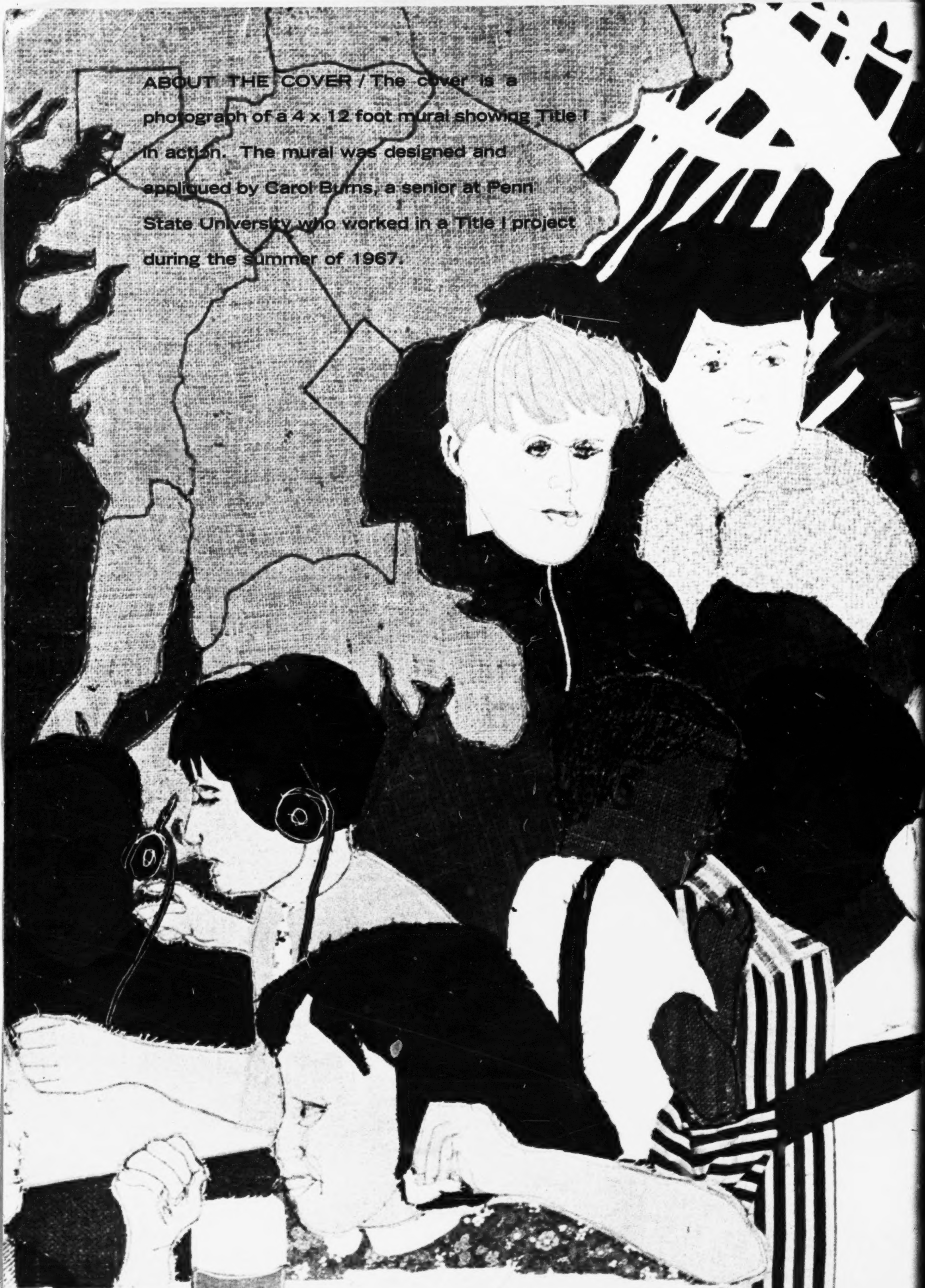

ABOUT THE COVER / The cover is a photograph of a 4 x 12 foot mural showing Title I in action. The mural was designed and appliqued by Carol Burns, a senior at Penn State University who worked in a Title I project during the summer of 1967.

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
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TITLE I / YEAR II

THE SECOND ANNUAL REPORT OF TITLE I OF THE ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION ACT OF 1965
SCHOOL YEAR 1966-67

U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare
Wilbur J. Cohen, *Secretary*

Office of Education
Harold Howe II, *Commissioner*

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I

SUMMARY

This is the second annual report on Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, a program designed to provide financial assistance to schools serving areas with large concentrations of children from low-income families.

In its first year, Title I served approximately 8.3 million youngsters. In 1966-67, Title I programs in 16,400 school districts throughout the States and outlying areas touched the life and education of 9.2 million school children, including handicapped, neglected, delinquent, and migrant children. These programs—designed and carried out by local school districts—cost the American taxpayer $1 billion a year. The major purpose of this report is to trace the results of these expenditures—to state what they failed to accomplish as well as what they did accomplish. The report also offers some insights into the problems that make educating culturally deprived children such a frustratingly difficult job. In addition, it presents brief descriptions of some programs that have shown positive results.

Above all, this report is an objective attempt to depict a truly national effort involving millions of man-hours spent by State and local school administrators, teachers, specialists, and volunteers who have taken on themselves the job of revising educational programs for America's disadvantaged youth. With Title I funds these educators are endeavoring to provide "compensatory education"—services over and above what the schools normally supply—services which will make up for the cumulative effects of poverty and discrimination.

The Crisis in the Cities

An increasing concentration of poor families in the big cities has placed the major emphasis of Title I in these areas. Here violence, delinquency, and unemployment add to the problems of poverty to create a hostile environment for compensatory education and for every other kind of positive educational effort.

One measurement of the gap between Title I area schools and other public schools appears in a nine-city study of comparative reading achievement. In all nine cities—Philadelphia, San Francisco, Minneapolis, Washington, Seattle, Detroit, Oakland, New York, and Miami—reading levels in all grades of low-income schools were below the levels of the other schools. At the same time, however, there was also a decrease in the level of average achievement for all grades in the city regardless of income-level area.

Inadequate funding of big city education has contributed to this decline in the effectiveness of city schools. State laws limit municipal taxing power severely but the States themselves have generally failed to provide sufficient money to fill the gap between local needs and local ability to satisfy them. Although directed to areas where the problem is most acute, Federal assistance has not removed the disparity. Title I funds in Detroit, Newark, and New Haven were going to only about half of the children the cities considered needing Title I aid.
Title I's billion dollars could not, by itself, solve the problem last year. Large numbers of children and schools were still left out or served inadequately.

Money alone will not resolve the problems of the big city school. Unquestionably, as an analysis of 39 cities shows, concentrated remedial help can raise the level of academic achievement. But such programs are extremely expensive in terms of resources—teachers, space, specialists, materials. These resources—money, staff, space—are limited in any city. To extend the effort to match the need would require a mobilization effort more far-reaching than any now envisioned by any community.

Moreover, programs that show signs of immediate success often are not sufficient. Title I children start so far behind the average student on the first test administered to them in school that they never catch up. All through their school careers, they lag behind. To reduce the gap, Title I children must achieve at a greater rate than the norm.

Racial discrimination and community segregation stand as formidable obstacles to this kind of program. Therefore, efforts to reduce social isolation must continue. Communities which expect schools to get on with the business of compensatory education have the obligation to themselves to eliminate segregation, including de facto segregation in schools and discrimination in employment and housing.

To the extent that they succeed, their efforts will have bearing on an additional problem. Perhaps the most perplexing task of compensatory education is that of convincing slum children that education is worthwhile. The slum child sees little evidence that academic study will improve his opportunities, his place of residence, or his income.

Despite the incontrovertibly bleak facts about the cities and their schools, there is evidence of some academic progress by Title I pupils. Individual Title I projects, some citywide in scope, demonstrate that children can make substantial academic gains in compensatory education courses. But this gives no cause for satisfaction. Valuable as the achievement of one child in Appalachia or a citywide program in San Diego may be, the national effort cannot be weighed one child or one city at a time.

Title I is contributing to an evaluation of social conditions in many areas. But it cannot realistically be expected to assume the responsibility or the financial support for programs to alleviate every condition which interferes with a child's educational growth. It is a piece of the solution to ignorance, poverty, and discrimination. Only when joined by other programs which affect housing, family income, health, and economic opportunity, can this major effort in the elementary and secondary schools reach its full promise.

Where the Money Goes

A comparison of how Title I was spent in the 1966 and 1967 fiscal years shows increases for instruction-related services and decreases for construction and the purchase of equipment.

- Instructional expenditures (for school staff, teacher training, and improved methods of instruction) rose from 52 percent in 1966 to 66 percent in 1967;
- Expenditures for pupil services (medical and dental examinations, guidance services, lunch programs) rose from 7 to 10 percent;
- Equipment expenditures dropped from 21 percent in 1966 to 8 percent last year;
- Spending for classroom construction dropped from 10 to 5 percent.

These changes within spending categories indicate that local school personnel attach more value to improving the quality of the instructional program than to the attractiveness of the facilities in which education is provided. They also support the judgment quoted later in this report: "None of the programs studied have come up with a substitute for effective teaching." (See page 60)

Catalyst for Change

Title I is designed to benefit poor children. Somewhat paradoxically, however, the programs made possible by Title I are seriously challenging traditional educational practices and introducing new techniques that promise to benefit fortunate children as well. In time, the major reforms now underway in low-income schools may become accepted priorities for all schools.

Here are some of the major Title I emphases:

THE TEACHER: Many Title I programs reflect the fact that nearly everyone in a community, whether store manager, auto mechanic, or trombonist, can contribute specialized knowledge and skill to a youngster's education. In addition to bringing these informal "teachers" into a new alliance with the schools, professional educators are stepping up their efforts to recruit and train a new breed of career teacher for the culturally deprived child.

CLASSROOM AIDES: During 1967, Title I programs brought approximately 90,000 aides—many of them parents of disadvantaged children—into the classroom. Their help, ranging from simple baby-sitter chores to clerical and tutorial work, enabled teachers to spend more time on lesson preparation, individual instruction, professional conferences, and inservice training.

EXTENDING THE SCHOOL DAY, WEEK, AND YEAR: With the help of Title I funds, many districts for the first time operated their schools in the late afternoons, evenings, and on the weekends. In 1967, about 17 percent of Title I expenditures went into summer programs that expanded the anachronistic 9-month school year to 12 months and helped prevent the learning losses that regularly occur during school vacations.

PRESCHOOL AND EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION: Psychologists find that about 50 percent of the intellectual capacity a youngster will attain by age 17 is predictable at age 4. To give disadvantaged children the best possible start on their education, local districts sponsored preschool programs that enrolled about 475,000 children—more than 5 percent of all Title I students.

DROPOUTS: Educators devised special curriculums, work-study programs, and basic skills courses to reclaim dropouts by offering instruction that would qualify them for good jobs.

Reaching the "Hidden Population"

In addition to the millions of culturally deprived children whose learning handicaps stem from poverty, there are hundreds of thousands of children whose special circumstances in life give them less than a fair chance for a solid education. This "hidden population," isolated from normal American life and known only to those who seek it out, includes the children of migrant workers; youngsters in Bureau of Indian Affairs schools; neglected, orphaned, and delinquent children in custodial institutions; and the physically and mentally handicapped. During the 1966-67 school year, Congress funded amendments to Title I to provide Federal aid for the education of these children. The amendments had these effects:

- Thirty States established new educational programs for migrant children and another 14 expanded programs already in operation. In all, 44 of the 47 eligible States took advantage of the amendments to help migrant youngsters. Approximately 77,000 children benefited through improved language training (mostly in English, for children from homes where it is not spoken), health and medical care, nutritional services, and programs designed to buttress the self-respect of youngsters whose belief in their own abilities had been badly damaged.

- More than 105,000 neglected and delinquent children in State and local custodial institutions became eligible for improved educational services.
- The States received $14 million for special educational programs to save delinquents from adult lives of crime and to compensate for the emotional deprivation that handicaps neglected children in their scholastic work. With these funds, custodial institutions concentrated on two broad objectives: Improving academic and vocational curriculums, and improving the attitudes of institutionalized youngsters toward themselves and society. Typical institutional programs emphasized individualized instruction and techniques to develop warmer, more personal relationships between youngsters and staff.
- The Title I amendments provided improved diagnostic services, specialized curriculums, and better-qualified professional staff for 83,000 handicapped children in 700 State-supported institutions. Public Law 89-313 allowed institutions to initiate and expand more than 100 summer programs and to extend services to preschool children in more than 100 special programs.
- Approximately 50,000 children in Bureau of Indian Affairs schools received concentrated instruction in English, guidance and counseling services, and health and physical education through programs financed by $5 million under the amendments. Title I programs also emphasized the training of teachers to deal with unique educational problems of American Indian children.

Children in Nonpublic Schools

Though the participation of parochial and other nonpublic school children in Title I programs actually declined from 1966 to 1967—466,100 compared with 526,600—the average expenditure for each nonpublic participant increased from $57 to $75.

The numerical decline stems from a number of factors. One was more accurate statistical reporting for the year 1966-67. A second factor was the decline in the number of Title I summer programs. Because nonpublic school children often have different class schedules and must travel some distance to participate in Title I programs, they can be included more conveniently in summer programs than in those conducted during the school year. A decrease in summer programs therefore results in a decrease in private school participation.

Another restrictive factor arises in the case of parochial schools. The different administrative boundaries make it difficult for public and parochial administrators to plan programs.

Federal-State Cooperation

Reports from State educational agencies indicate that Title I is one of the most popular aid-to-education programs ever passed by Congress. Perhaps more important from the educational point of view, State reports also show that the States are supplementing Federal funds with increasing compensatory education expenditures of their own.

The Massachusetts State Department of Education, for example, notes that 15 percent of its local school districts increased their 1967-68 regular budgets to support programs started by 1967 Title I expenditures, "and it is quite likely that this number may double for the 1968-69 budget year." New Jersey reports "an attitude evident in both parents and staff that the services established under Title I must continue regardless of Federal funding." In Maine, "superintendents have reported that many of the worthwhile activities originally under Title I were financed this year from the regular school budget, and that other activities were initiated in place of the original ones," giving the State's educators "an opportunity to experiment with new programs for the educationally disadvantaged and to adapt those which have proved to be successful."

Information gathered by the Office of Education bears out these reports of increased State investment to parallel Federal Title I aid. Though only California, New York, and Massachusetts had compensatory education programs before the Elementary and Secondary Education Act was passed, 11 States had them in the Spring of 1968. Before the passage of ESEA, the three States appropriated only $2.7 million for compensatory education; since 1965, how-

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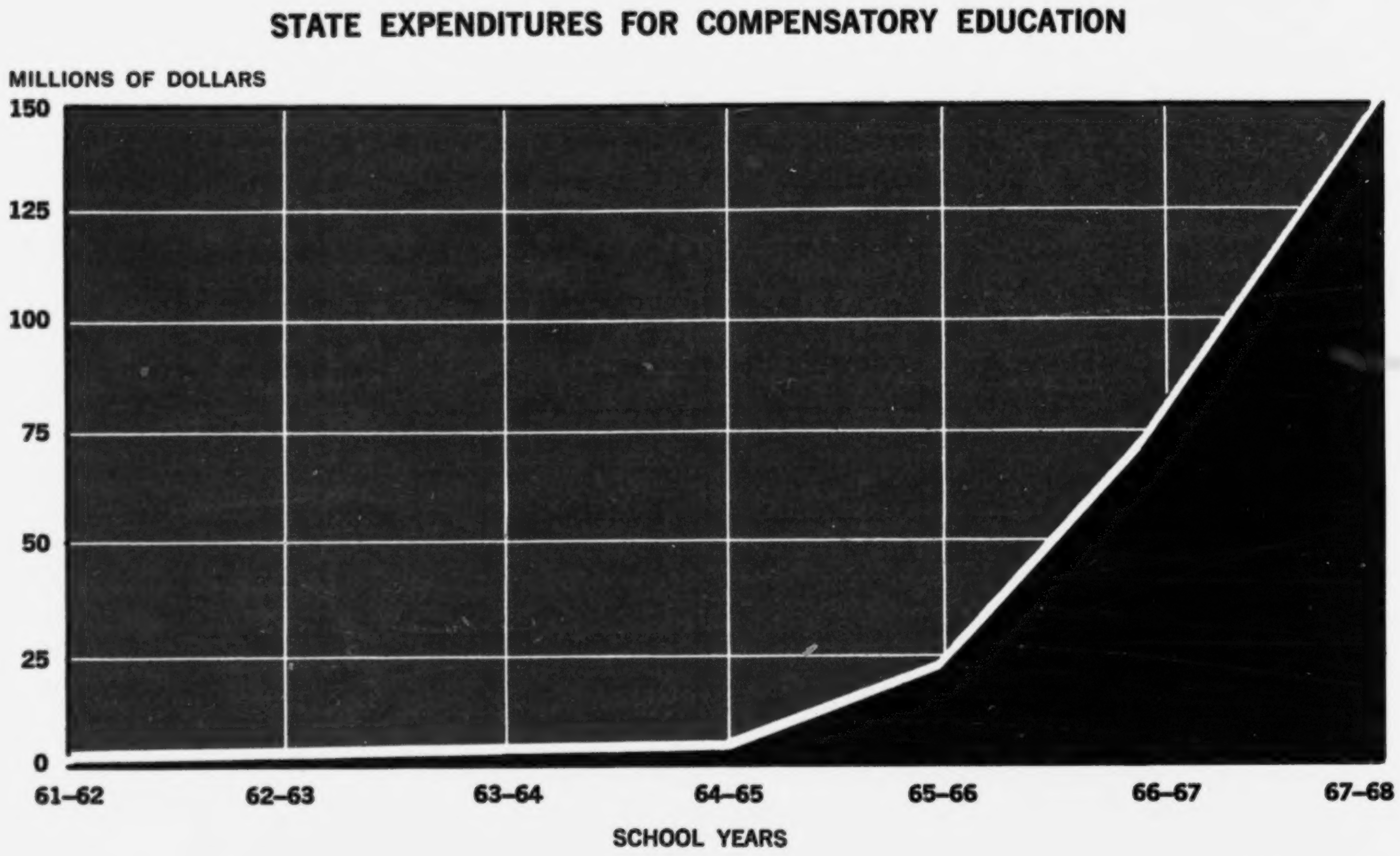


Figure 1

ever, State legislators have set aside approximately $198 million for essentially the same purposes as Title I.

This increased spending—illustrated in Figure I—is one of the major achievements of Title I. It shows that State support for Title I is not simply applause for Federal dollars, but represents a commitment to an idea that has proved educationally sound.

But the single result of Title I that may prove most important goes beyond financial measurements or statistics on student participation. It is a spirit of experiment in the schools, of a determination to explore new approaches to education, evaluate the results, and put the best ideas to work. There are indications that Title I experiments in only a few districts in a State are influencing educational practice throughout the State.

In Maryland, for example, the State Department of Education reports:

The preschool programs conducted under Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act have been so successful they have convinced the public that early educational experience is very valuable. For many years school systems, parents, and the public had attempted to have statewide kindergartens. The 1967 Maryland General Assembly enacted a bill which now makes kindergartens a part of the public school system of Maryland.

Georgia reports that the evaluation of kindergarten programs financed by Title I during the 1966-67 school year and the aggressive advocacy of local education agencies have "helped to cause a primary political pressure to institute public kindergartens in the State." And in Idaho, "it is possible that there will be more support for State-supported kindergartens in the next legislature because of the experience the public schools have had with Title I kindergarten programs."

It appears that Title I has helped stimulate an appetite for change and improvement in the schools. American educators have for decades known that continuing change was necessary for the health of any social institution. Until the Elementary and Secondary Education Act was passed, however, they usually lacked the finances, staff, and other resources to inaugurate change.

Title I has given them that stimulus, and the result—according to evaluators in the South Carolina Department of Education—is that "school administrators speak of the 'educational revolution' of Title I, and although several years will elapse before statistics conclusively bear out this revolution, it is recognized here as a reality."

The Results

Local, State, and Federal evaluations of Title I programs and of the children they serve present these indications of progress:

- Title I programs have prevented many disadvantaged youngsters from falling behind their more fortunate peers in scholastic progress. Where in the past they have lost ground each month, many Title I youngsters are now improving, sometimes gaining a full month of learning for every month spent in the classroom.
- Reading-test data from a sampling of the States indicate that Title I youngsters are attaining higher levels of achievement according to national testing norms.

The dropout rate in Title I schools has decreased, and more of these children continued their education beyond high school in 1967 as compared with 1966.

Despite these hopeful signs, however, the Title I child is still far behind the average student. As many as 60 percent of the Title I youngsters in some districts fall in the lowest quarter on reading scores; they have higher absentee rates than other children; substantially fewer continue their education beyond high school, and of those who do a disproportionate number go into trade or business schools rather than into college. Finally, educationally deprived children continue to represent the highest percentage of school dropouts.

The achievement gap between educationally deprived children and those from middle-income homes is particularly disheartening in the cities, for the urban schools face problems of a special intensity. Education is more expensive in the cities than anywhere else: Land and building costs are higher, and higher living costs—together with the competition from affluent suburbs—force the cities to pay proportionately higher salaries for teachers. The inner-city schools—overcrowded, often obsolete, located in changing neighborhoods which the cities seem powerless to prevent from deteriorating—find it increasingly difficult to attract and keep good teachers. Improvement is hampered by declining urban tax bases and inequitable State support.

Studies by the Office of Education and information supplied by the cities suggest that the problems of urban education will intensify in the near future. With the continuing emigration of middle and upper income whites and Negroes to the suburbs, an even higher proportion of the city school population will consist of the most seriously disadvantaged children.

Despite enormous handicaps, however, there is some evidence of academic progress by Title I students in the urban ghetto schools. An Office of Education study concludes that the youngsters in Title I programs did better scholastically than had been typical of students in low-income-area schools. The rate of progress in reading achievement, as measured by standardized tests, approached the national norm—a definite change from past findings that Title I children achieved at a considerably slower rate than the national average.

The major conclusions and recommendations that emerge from USOE and independent studies of urban Title I programs are these:

- Desegregation efforts must not diminish. The elimination of discrimination is a national goal, mandated by law and recognized as a moral commitment. The inequalities of opportunity between schools in the ghettos and other more advantaged schools make desegregation, along with community programs, essential in the quest for quality education.
- Although Title I is serving a substantial number of children in the inner cities, it still reaches only a fraction of the poorly prepared, undereducated children in those cities.
- Programs that concentrate Title I funds on a limited number of children show much

greater potential for success than fragmented programs which attempt to benefit a larger student population.

- A high rate of pupil mobility decreases the effectiveness of Title I programs in the inner city, and makes it difficult to measure results. Well-planned programs lose their effectiveness because school personnel cannot follow a child through a full school year or from year to year.

It is too early to state in definitive terms whether Title I is contributing to major educational change in the United States. Because Title I programs are concentrated in the early elementary years, some of their intended effects—reducing the dropout rate, for example—cannot be fully measured for another decade.

Measurement itself presents serious difficulties. Because Title I has been in operation for only 2 years, educators lack the information necessary to compare progress over a significant period of time. Further, traditional techniques for evaluating academic progress have proved unreliable for testing children from a cultural background so markedly different from that of the white child from a comfortable home.

Finally, it must be realized that Title I—though an important step in the right direction—is treating only the most seriously deprived children. Millions of youngsters who also have acute educational handicaps, but who do not attend target area schools, are still without vitally needed compensatory education programs.

II

TITLE I CHILD

WHO HE IS

Bad things happen to a poor child. Poverty attends his birth, weakens his chance to survive, delays his first words, hinders his first steps, and limits the scope of his world. Phrases such as "economically disadvantaged" attempt to encompass the profound things that happen to poor children. The things some of these children experience—rat bites and malnutrition—and the psychological and physical effects of such experiences can hardly be imagined by middle-class Americans.

Poverty affects a child's health, his growth, his self-confidence, his social attitudes, and his life span. It affects the ways in which others view a child, and the way they act towards him. It follows a child to school, where far, far too often failure is institutionalized.

Poverty and educational deprivation are found together. Where one exists, the other is usually present. But also there is a causal relationship—ignorance breeds and maintains poverty, and poverty cripples educational attainment and breeds more ignorance.

All across the country, school districts and cities have designated "target schools" as a focus of Title I effort. These are the schools with the greatest number of educationally deprived children. In San Francisco, for example, there are 28 target schools out of 100 elementary schools in the city. In Kansas City, Mo., of the 83 elementary schools, the 13 having the most disadvantaged children became Title I schools. The children in these schools are Title I children. Who are they and what are they like?

The influence of poverty upon a child means more than simply the lack of money, important as this may be. Poverty hurts the child not so much directly as indirectly—by what it does to his family, what it says about where he can live and go to school, and what it does to his expectations for the future.

In contrast to the advantaged child, the child of poverty often comes to school poorly fed and clothed, and sometimes with serious and undetected medical problems.

Children from affluent homes do not ordinarily suffer material deprivation or inadequate health care. Furthermore, they grow up in homes where reading is encouraged, and they come to school well prepared. Their speech and habits of thought are similar to the teacher's. Progress

in school is usually painless, and they move almost automatically into the better classes or ability groups.

Children who grow up in poor neighborhoods, on the other hand, may have styles of speech different from the school's and different from written English. They are less likely to read before they enter school. The school doesn't speak their language, and they have difficulty with achievement tests and school work. The tendency for teachers to regard poor children as deficient becomes a self-fulfilling prophecy—finally fulfilled the day the child drops out or is himself dropped.

The effect of poverty extends to parents. In more affluent communities, the quality of the school system is a basic and active concern of parents. They are actively involved in school affairs. Parents in poor neighborhoods are not any less concerned with education, but they find it difficult to become involved in school affairs when the problems of material existence are pressing. Many parents in poor neighborhoods do not participate in school affairs because they feel unwelcome and do not believe that the schools really care about their children.

The child from an affluent neighborhood sees education as the chief vehicle of success in later life. It is expected that he will attend college. The only questions are which college and whether graduate school should follow. These children are not likely to lack money for their higher education. They find it natural to plan for long-range goals, for there is less pressure to start earning money. Indeed, all the pressure is put on the side of completing school and graduating from college.

Poverty has a different effect on a child's ambitions and aspirations. The child from a low-income family is more likely to find work as soon as possible, less likely to finish high school, and still less likely to have the necessary academic preparation or financial means to go on to college.

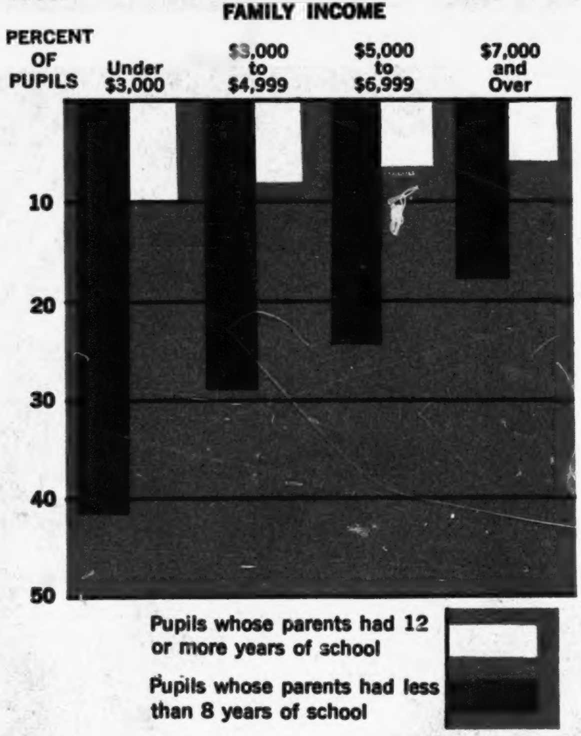
His parents, as children, most likely suffered from the same deprivation and are passing on to another generation the same educational problems.

There are close relationships between the academic achievement of a child and his parents' educational level and his family's income. Figure 2 shows clearly the forceful influence of the father's education in the academic success of his children. This graph, drawn from the 1966 report on *Equality of Educational Opportunity* by James S. Coleman et al, shows that the child of a college graduate scores much higher on standard achievement tests than the child of an uneducated father.

If the uneducated father also has a low income —and this usually is the case—the problem is compounded. Figure 3, drawn from the 1960 U.S. Census, shows the relationship between a child's achievement in school and the education and income of his father. More than 40 percent of the children with fathers having less than 8 years of school and annual incomes of less than $3,000 were reported a year or more behind their grade levels. Yet only 5 percent of the children whose parents had a high school education and incomes exceeding $7,000 were behind in school.

PUPILS WHO FAIL

Percent of Pupils, 14–15 Years Old, Who Were One Grade or More Below the Grade Typical for Their Age. Classified by Education of Parent and Family Income: 1960.



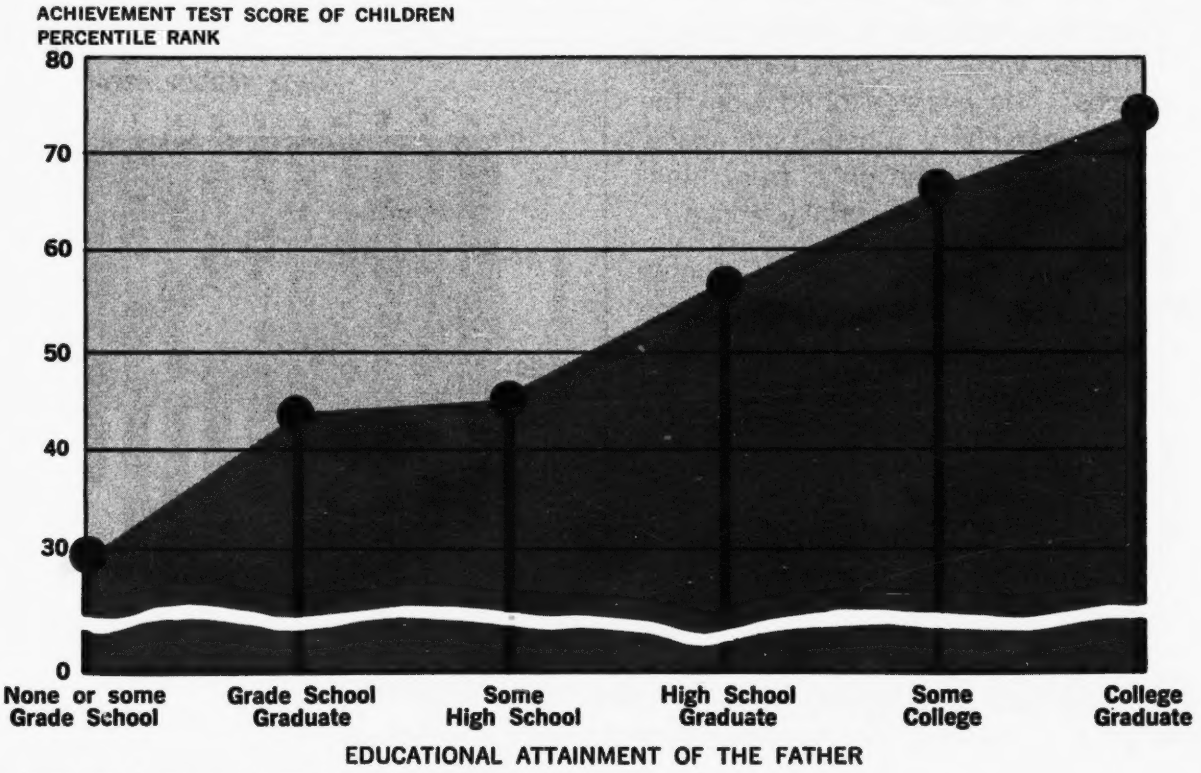
SOURCE: U.S. CENSUS—1960.

Figure 3

Figure 4 is another striking example of the relation between family income and educational

CHILD FOLLOWS FATHER

Average Percentile Rank of Test Scores of 9th Grade Pupils Arranged by Educational Attainment of the Father.



Source: Equal Educational Opportunity Survey Composite Test

Figure 2

LOW INCOME—LOW READING SCORES

Comparison of 6th Grade Reading Scores of Nine Lowest Income Area Schools with Nine Highest Income Area Schools in Washington, D.C.: 1965–66

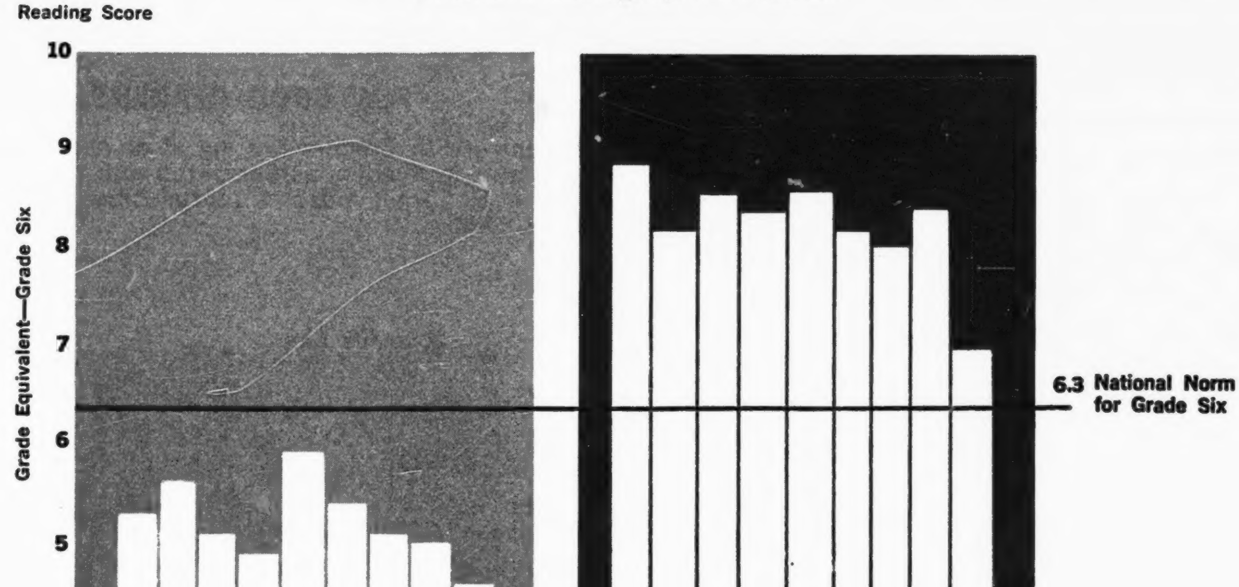


Figure 4

achievement. It compares the reading achievement of children attending 18 schools in Washington, D.C.—nine schools with children whose families earned the lowest incomes in the city; nine with children whose families earned the highest incomes. The average child from the low-income families scored substantially below the national norm, while the child from high-income families scored substantially above.

The medians of the two groups show low-income schools lag 3.2 years behind high-income schools. The median of low-income schools was 1.2 years below the national norm; the high-income median was 2.0 years above the norm. An even wider gap exists between individual schools. In grade 6, for example, the gap is as much as 4.2 years. This disparity is not peculiar to Washington, D.C. It exists in school systems in every large city in the Nation.

A more comprehensive study has been released by the New York State Education Department which administered reading and arithmetic competency tests to more than a million pupils —94 percent of the total in grades 1, 3, 6, and 9 in 1965.

On the basis of these tests, a minimum competence level was established and all pupils in the State who fell below the 23rd percentile on the test were classified as educationally deprived. These pupils were roughly 2 years behind grade level.

Figure 5 shows the percent of pupils below this minimum competence level in 13 target areas in the central cities of New York State. Figure 6 shows the percent at the 77th percentile or above.

The 13 target areas shown in the charts represent six standard metropolitan statistical areas identified by the New York Department of Education. In four of the 13 target areas, over 50 percent of the pupils scored below the minimum competence level compared with the Statewide norm of 23 percent.

Figure 7 compares the percent of grade 6 pupils below the minimum competence level with the percent on whom Title I grants were based. Area by area, the number of children seriously behind in school is much greater than the number of children on whom Title I entitlement is based.

TARGET AREA PUPILS LAG

Percent of 6th Graders Below Minimum Competence Level in Reading (the 23rd Percentile on Statewide Norm)—13 Target Areas in Central Cities in New York State: 1966.

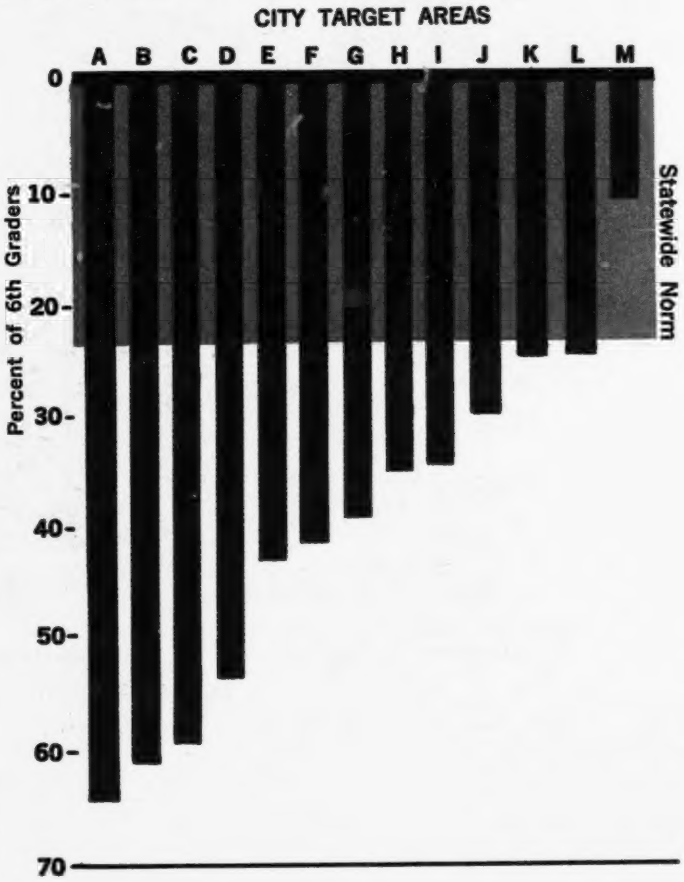


Figure 5

FEW GOOD READERS

Percent of 6th Graders Scoring at or Above the 77th Percentile in Reading as Compared with the Statewide Norm—13 Target Areas in Central Cities in New York State: 1966.

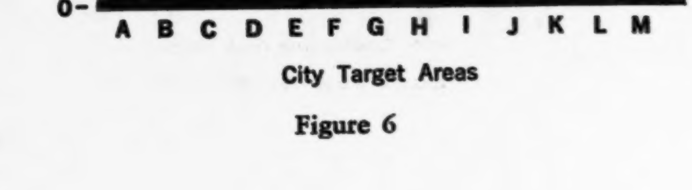


Figure 6

MORE PUPILS NEED HELP

Grade 6 Pupils Below Minimum Competence Level (23rd Percentile on Statewide Achievement Norm) Compared With Children on Which Title I Entitlements Were Based—13 Largest City Target Areas in New York State: 1966

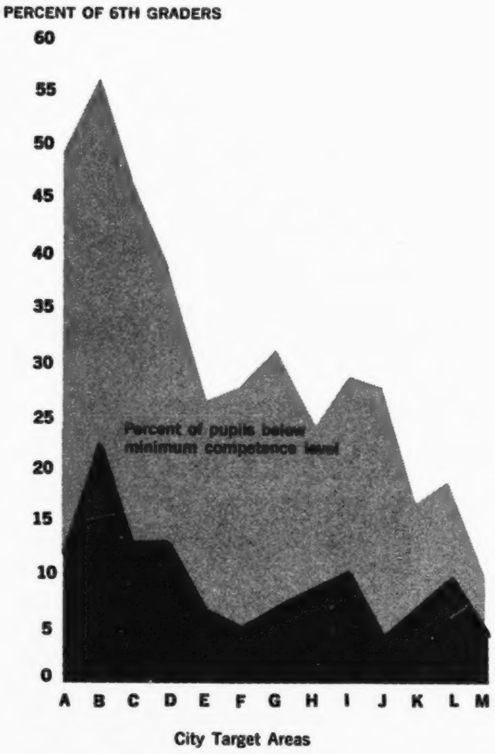
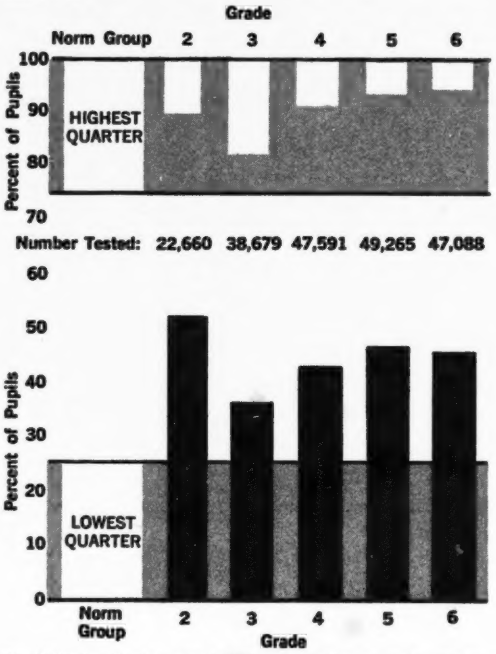


Figure 7

READING RESULTS

Percent of Title I Pupils in 21 States Scoring in the Highest and Lowest Quarters on Standardized Tests: 1966–67



The following States were included in reading pretests, grades 2 through 6: Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Louisiana, Maryland, Massachusetts, Missouri, Nebraska, Nevada, New Mexico, North Carolina, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Tennessee, Texas, Utah, and Virginia.

Figure 8

By definition, the child covered by Title I is from a family within the lowest income level in the community and is least able to succeed in school. Figure 8 indicates the extent of the education problem in Title I projects. This 21-State survey shows that about 40 percent of the children in Title I projects scored in the lowest quarter on standardized tests—a concentration of poor readers that is a direct measure of the enormity of the remedial problem. On the other hand, very few scored in the upper quarter. None of the target areas had 25 percent of the pupils in the upper quarter. All but grade 3 had 10 percent or fewer.

Besides being laggard in academic achievement, Title I children have a low rate of attendance and a high dropout rate.

Figure 9 shows the direct relation between median days absent in a year and the number of Title I children in a grade.

Figure 10 shows a similar relation in dropouts when non-Title I schools are compared to Title I schools and to schools with class populations that are comprised of one-third or more Title I children.

Figure 11 shows that target schools with a heavy concentration of Title I children have fewer graduates, fewer graduates who continue their education, and more dropouts than other schools.

Statistics measure the problems but hide the human tragedies.

Here are some descriptions of what Title I children are like, drawn from Denver's evaluation report:

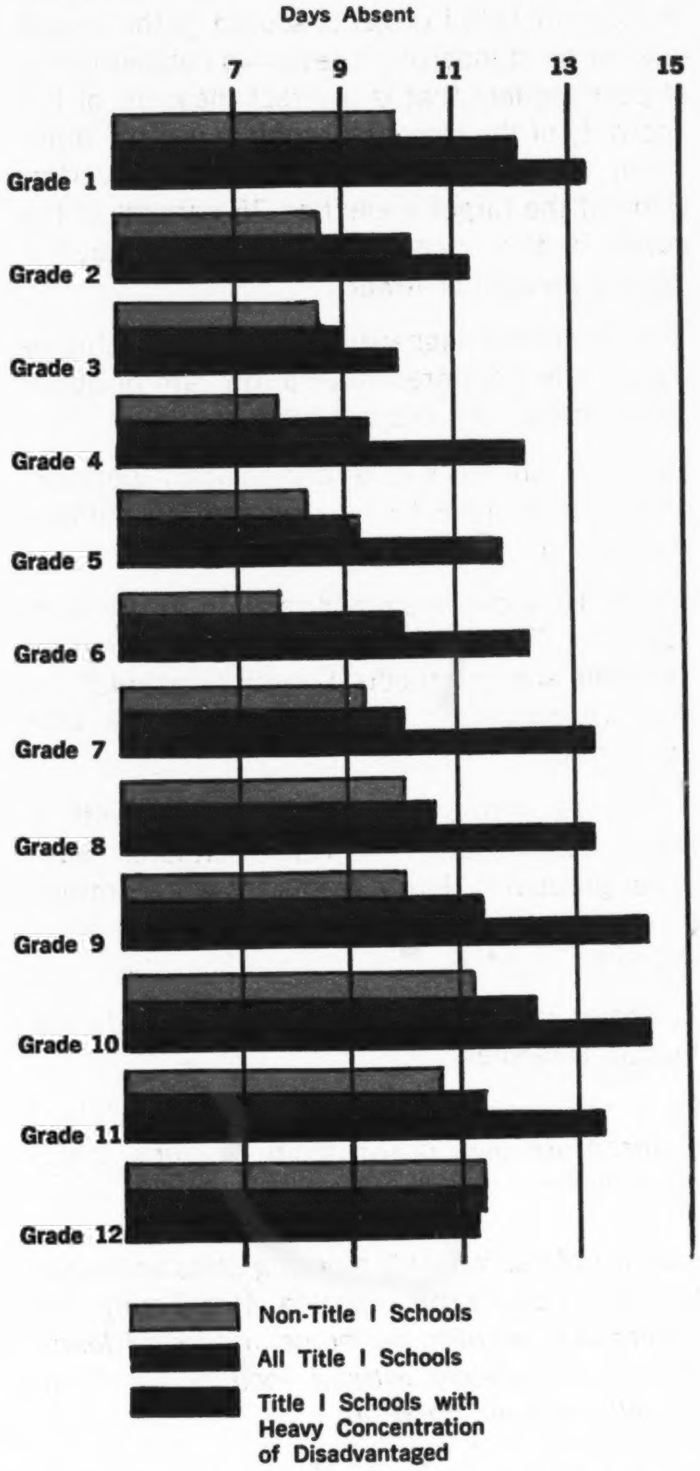
Joan is in Mrs. Nelson's morning class and came to school hungry this morning. Mrs. Young, the parent aide, went to her home and found Joan's mother completely without food or funds for herself and eight children.

* * *

Jerry lives with his parents and seven other children. His father is a shoe repairman and his mother works part-time. The first visit disclosed the household was rather disorderly. Two children of school age were home for the supervision of an ill child while the mother went on errands.

PUPIL ABSENTEES

Median Absentee Rates[1] in Non-Title I and Title I Schools by Grade Level: 1966–67

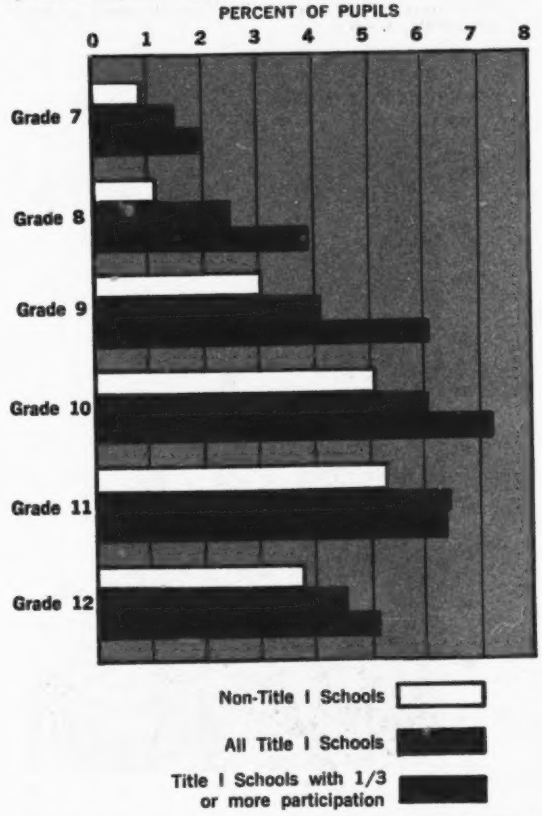


[1] The median absentee rate is 1.000 minus the median attendance rate for each grade and category; days absent based on school year of 180 days.
Based on data from 23 states

Figure 9

DROPOUTS

Median Dropout Rates in Non-Title I and Title I Schools by Grade Level: 1966–67[1]

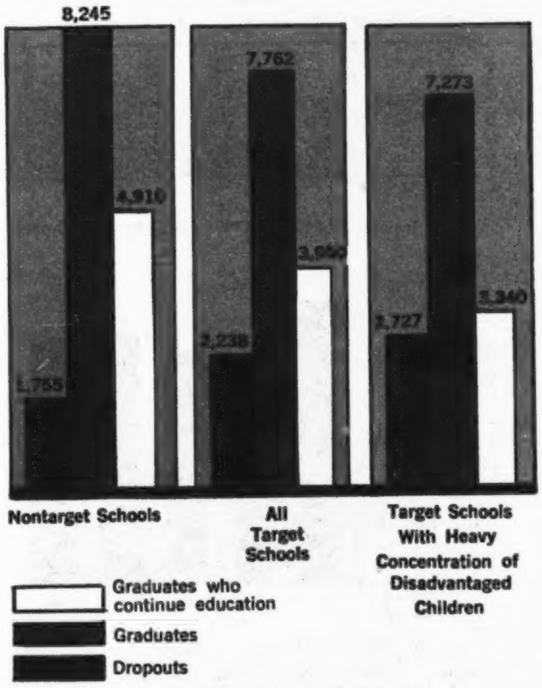


[1] Based on data from 20 states for non-Title I and all Title I Schools, 12 states for Title I schools with 1/3 or more participation.

Figure 10

ON LEAVING SCHOOL

Number of Dropouts, High School Graduates, and Graduates Who Continue Education from Nontarget Schools, All Target Schools, and Target Schools with Heavy Concentration of Disadvantaged Children[1]



[1] Based on 10,000 pupils for each type of school.

Figure 11

Tim cried the first, second, and part of the third day of school. He was very sick and withdrawn in the beginning. I don't believe he said more than two words for many weeks. His mother supports five children on her small ADC check every month. Tim seemed to have a chronic cold and he 'stammers' when he talks, which he does quite often now at the end of the year. We had to work exceedingly hard to get him to school, sick or not, at the beginning of the year.

Bobby arrived in my Head Start preschool last fall, a very shy, insecure, anxious little boy who sucked his thumb continuously and did not participate in activities. Most of the time he stayed in a corner and just watched. He came from a broken home; his mother had been in a sanatorium with TB for over a year when Bobby was 2 years old. Almost immediately after her discharge from the sanatorium she had become pregnant.

Jimmy attended school irregularly during the first six weeks of school. He had recurrent impetigo which finally cleared. Jimmy is the fifth child in a family of seven children. By November, Jimmy had become a very belligerent child whose only joy in school seemed to be to destroy.

Richard was failing in social studies when I started working with him. His teacher stated he was not a 'dumb' student but was 'ornery' and 'stubborn'.

Paul was very much a nontalker, very bashful, immature, no smiles, constantly looking down, seeming to be fearful. He was unable to understand directions or follow them. He was also a very poor writer. After getting glasses, he seemed able to get his writing on the line, at least. He seemed to be entirely different on the playground and would come alive and close to the teacher, offering occasional conversational comments. After about 6 weeks he began to blossom in the classroom.

Social scientists have rejected the proposition that "innate" ability is related to the social class of individual children. But the relationship between poverty and race on one hand and educational performance on the other is a reality. It is there. It exists. Why?

Ability is of little value without opportunity. Ability must be given the opportunity to develop. Of course, it cannot be said that even given real equality of opportunity, all abilities would then flower into excellence. *All* children cannot achieve at a higher than average rate. On any measure of educational achievement or attainment, some will do better than average, some worse.

But the Nation cannot permit the continuation of the present situation—a situation in which children of minority group families and of poor families are almost uniformly those who do worse.

Title I's ultimate goal is to overcome the educational deprivation associated with poverty and race. When this goal is reached, children of various income groups and children of various racial groups will be indistinguishable from one another on important measures of educational performance.

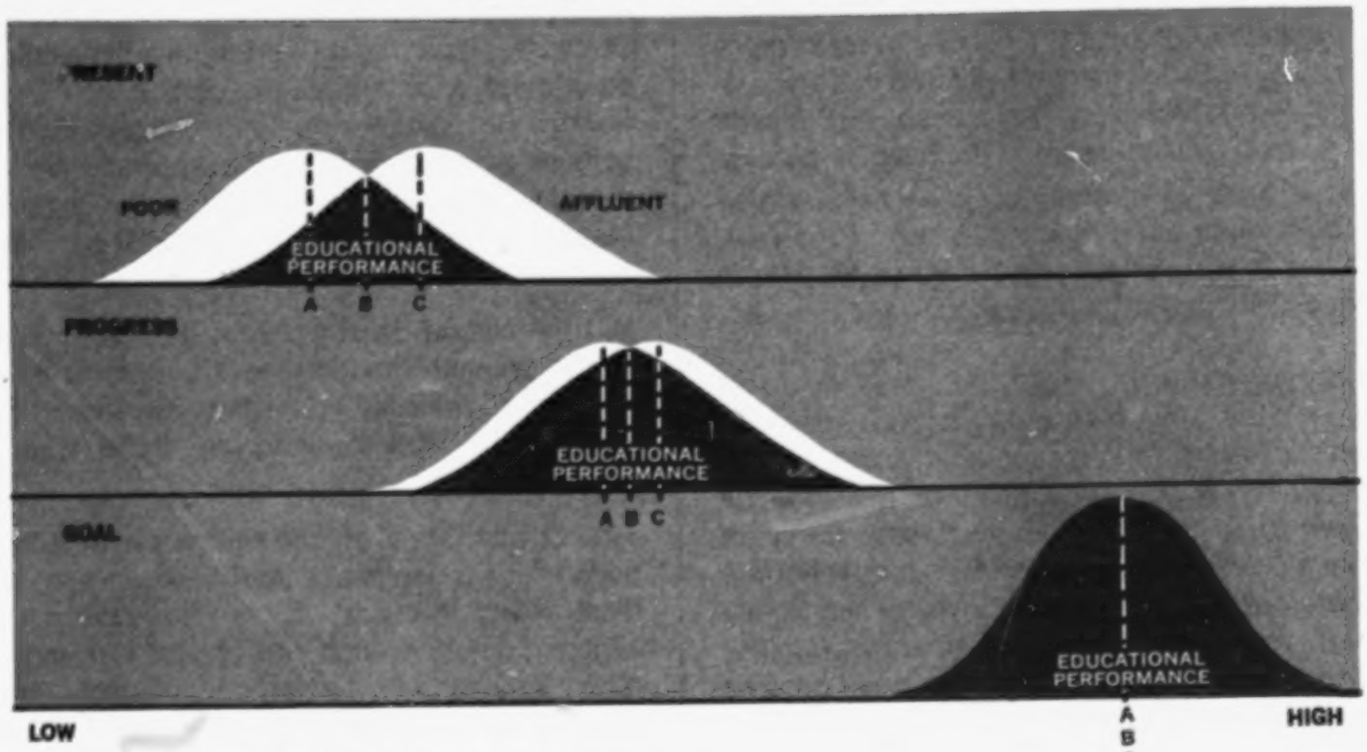
Educational performance should not, however, be narrowly defined to include only scores on achievement tests. Performance also depends upon a child's self-confidence, his ability to feel at ease in the classroom, and his desire to succeed in school.

Other measures of educational performance include high school graduation, marks given in school, grade promotion, and college admission. By any of these performance measures, Title I children are behind.

The serious educational deficiency which characterizes Title I children is shown in the upper curves in Figure 12. Title I children are performing substantially below line B, the average for *all* children.

The goal of Title I is then shown in the lower two curves; it is to close the gap in educational performance which exists between the rich and the poor, the white and the nonwhite. This must be accomplished by eliminating race and poverty as accurate predictors of group educational achievement. It must not be done by making all children, or all schools, the same.
The goal will be reached when educational differences among children—e.g., individual ability or motivation—will exist without regard to economic, racial, or social groups.

THE GOAL OF TITLE I



A—Average performance of poor children

B—Average performance of total school population

C—Average performance of affluent children

Figure 12

Title I has been responsible for a better understanding of the handicaps that beset poor children as they strive to match their affluent classmates in the arena of academic achievement where school success or failure is usually measured. Efforts to equalize this competition have shown that progress will be slow and difficult to assess. It is now clear that a tremendous downward slide in the school performance of poor children must be arrested before we can begin to match them against achievement norms.

Title I has also demonstrated that millions of deprived children suffer social handicaps that reach far beyond the classroom. Among these are the lack of dental care, basic medical attention, and a decent home environment. Children who are hungry cannot learn and if they are without proper clothing, they may not even reach the school door. Poor children are burdened with the despair that is handed down by generations of neglect and hopelessness. In the cities the children of poverty are likely to be segregated in fixed racial ghettos which lock in despair and shut out opportunity.

HOW HE PERFORMS IN SCHOOL

With the limited test data and scientific evaluation mechanisms available for this report, it is difficult to make definitive judgments about the effectiveness of a program as diverse as Title I.

Subjective measurements, however, abound. Principals, teachers, and parents "see" the progress and change in the children who received Title I services, especially if the child is receiving a comprehensive program of help that is relevant to his needs.

Nevertheless, too often the services and instruction are spread thin. Too often the children move from school to school and in and out of programs. In a given school half of the children tested in September may have been replaced by others in May. Most evaluation designs are not sophisticated enough to take into account these changes, and even if they were, most school systems would not be rich enough to implement them.

Because of a variety of administrative and methodological problems, described in the technical notes, it is not possible to make a precise, laboratory-designed research report on the Title I program.

However, some rough assessment of change in the States is feasible. Also, while some measures (such as the number of children continuing their education beyond high school) could hardly be expected to change as a result of less than 2 years of Title I programs concentrated largely in the elementary grades, the information does provide a baseline against which to measure future change.

Standardized tests are widely seen, despite their many limitations, as measures of how well pupils are doing in school. Parents and teachers are pleased when children achieve above the norms on tests. Although tests are not perfect instruments for evaluating children or schools, their results have great influence on the future of a child.

Standardized tests are used throughout the school career of children and often thereafter. Tests are used to determine the "readiness" of a child to enter school or start reading instructions. Tests influence decisions about whether a pupil will be placed in fast or slow "track," receive college prep or general curriculum, whether he goes on or is held back, and even which school he can attend. Test results influence the expectations of teachers and their evaluations of pupils. They influence decisions about high school, whether the students will be accepted by a college, and whether he can get the money to go to college, and later to graduate school.

Poor test results are in some ways much more devastating to poor children than to others. They seem to confirm the prejudices many people hold. They limit the future of the poor child, even more than others, because he is so dependent upon the school and other outside resources which will be made available to him on condition of good test results.

Reading Tests

In collecting data for this report the Office of Education asked each State to report reading scores only from the most widely used tests in the State. Some States, feeling that one test was not sufficiently representative, reported data from more than one test. In addition, each State also did some initial screening of the data so that only school districts providing usable pretest and posttest material were included.

For example, the Texas report explains that:

The data on standardized tests were grouped according to the tests used and the time intervals between pretesting and posttesting. It was found that many schools used the interval spring to spring for their comparisons. Others elected to pretest their students in the fall and posttest during the spring term of the same school year. To study the effects of these variations in pre-posttesting intervals, a sampling of 157 schools was selected. Data from the schools met the following requirements:

- *The Science Research Associates test material were used.*
- *Testing intervals were specified as either spring 1966 to spring 1967 or fall 1966 to spring 1967.*
- *Pretest and posttest scores were provided for all pupils.*

An example of the format used by the States is shown in Table 1, taken from the Texas report.

Table 1 / TEXAS READING TESTS

Standardized Test Results (Reading Subtest) for 1,849 Grade 2 Pupils Taking Both Pretest and Posttest: SRA Achievement Test

Test/ Date	T-Score Mean	Pupils per nat'l norms			
		1st Qtr	2nd Qtr	3rd Qtr	4th Qtr
Pre Oct '66	41.9	1055	413	289	92
Post Apr '67	44.5	817	501	379	152

The Office of Education established certain criteria in aggregating the test data reported by the States. First, the number of students reported as having taken the pretest and posttest had to be at least 100. Second, the pretests were to have been administered in the fall of 1966 and the posttests in the spring of 1967; test results from summer programs were not included.

In addition to these standards, the actual content of the test data reported had the effect of dictating what was to be included in the report. Since only eight States reported data on achievement batteries that met OE's criteria, it was decided to concentrate exclusively on reading test results, on which 21 States reported usable data. It was also decided to use data only for grades 2 through 6, as data on junior and senior high school students were extremely limited.

The States submitted standardized test results for two groups of Title I students: Those individual students within individual grades who remained in the Title I project for its entirety and who took both the pretest and the posttest; and those groups of students within individual grades who took both pretest and posttest, including individual students who may have been tested only once during the project period because of mobility in or out of school. States were to report the quarter distributions of those students scoring according to national norms.

Figure 13 shows the standing of Title I children from 21 States on standardized reading tests as compared to national norms. Although the depth of deprivation changes from case to case, it is clear that many of the children evaluated were doing very poorly in reading.

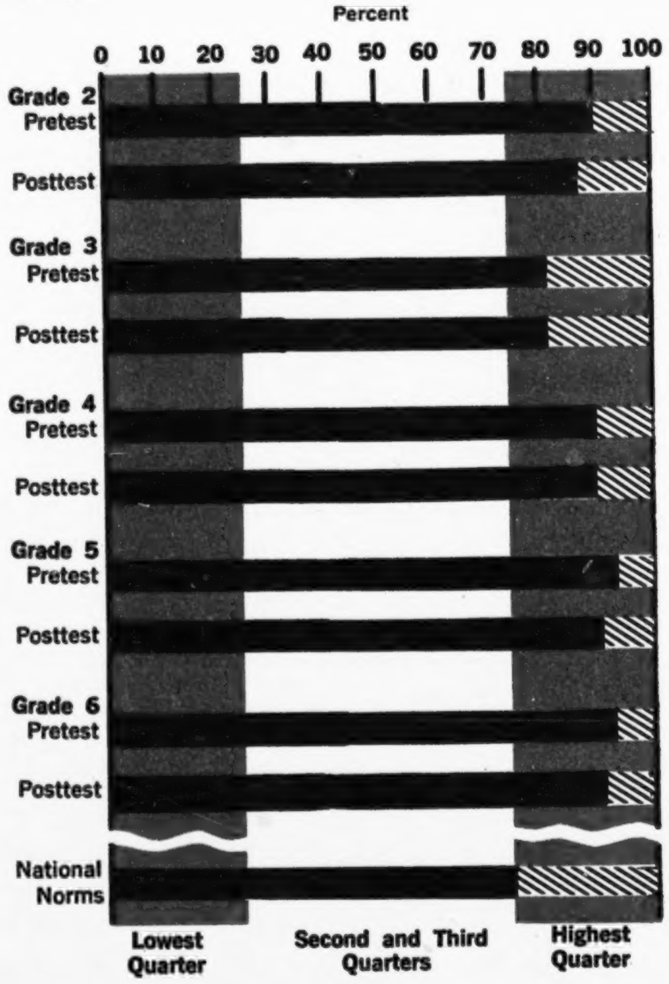
The graph shows that all grades had many more than the normal 25 percent of students ranking in the lowest quarter. Similarly, all grades had far fewer than the normal 25 percent of students in the highest quarter.

Although Title I participants still rank lower than the norm groups, their standing definitely improved during the 1966-67 school year. A comparison of pretest and posttest scores shows a smaller percentage of students ranking in the lowest quarter at the time of the second test. It may also be noted that there was very little change in the percent of students ranking in the top quarter. This was true for all grades. The implication is that Title I has the most effect on those who are farthest behind.

The findings presented in this graph are consistent with reports from other States and separate studies. Both State and city evaluation reports which contain comprehensive studies of their programs present a similar pattern of major reading deficiencies coupled with general improvements in reading achievement over the academic year.

TITLE I CHILDREN AND READING

Percent of Pupils in Each Quarter for Pretests and Posttests as Compared With Quarters for National Norm Groups [1]



[1] Based on data from 21 States: Alabama, Florida, Georgia Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Louisiana, Maryland, Massachusetts, Missouri, Nebraska, Nevada, New Mexico, North Carolina, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Tennessee, Texas, Utah, and Virginia.

Figure 13

State education agencies made a number of specific statements regarding reading gains. For example, the State of Washington reported:

The significance of the achievement results . . . reported by LEAs indicates that 63 percent of the reading programs showed substantial reading achievement gains while 37 percent indicated moderate academic gains.

The Utah State Educational Agency said:

School district personnel reported that more than 60 percent of 10,000 children given spe-

cial reading instruction made substantial progress as assessed by standardized tests, teachermade tests, and observation.

Maine cited one local educational agency's report that:

Two-thirds of our estimated 200 project children made good progress. Many returned to regular classes. Of a total 104 remedial reading students, 33 returned to normal classroom reading. Those that remained for the full school year in remedial work attained average grade placement gains of about 1 year. These students normally gain about half a year.

Similarly, California reported "Relatively few districts [had] average gains of less than a month for every month of instruction, while in some districts the average was almost 3 years' gain during the year." An analysis of the evaluation data submitted by California school districts has led State school officials to conclude:

- The greatest progress in achievement was in districts, schools, and grade levels that had the most comprehensive education programs concentrated on a few selected objectives.
- Greatest gains, on the average, were in medium-size urban areas; smallest gains were in the rural areas.

Summary: Reading test data from 21 States suggest that:

- The Title I children improved their standing over the period of time between pretest and posttest.
- As a group, Title I children still rank significantly below the national norms in reading, as measured by standardized tests.
- The reading test data are consistent with similar Title I data from other sources. The Pennsylvania State University study, cited in the appendix, is one example. Another is the city evaluations reported in Chapter III. Further reports from the States—too late to be included in the national analysis—also bear this out.

School Attendance

In learning basic academic skills, many children are completely dependent upon their teachers in school. This is particularly true of children from deprived families, where often only one parent is available for support and motivation, where the parent's level of formal education is low, and where education has simply not paid off in such a way as to motivate either the parents or the child. The Coleman report amply demonstrates this particular dependence of deprived children upon schools and teachers for the acquisition of basic skills.

Unfortunately, State data show that those students who are most dependent upon school for basic skill learning are also those who are absent the most.

The attendance rate of a child is a measure of many things—his health, his parent's attitude, his view toward school and the school's view of him, the attractiveness of the school program, and so forth. Because attendance is associated with so many factors which in turn are associated with achievement, attendance can be considered as one appropriate measure of educational attainment. Yet, because so many things are involved, it is difficult to improve the attendance rates of large numbers of Title I children in a short period of time. Individual school districts do, however, report substantial gains when special activities designed to improve attendance are focused on a particular group of children. For example, one school district in Louisiana reported that:

School attendance records for grade 1 in all target schools show an increase from 82.6 percent in 1964-65 to 83.9 percent in 1965-66 to 87 percent attendance in the 1966-67 school year. During this same period of time the nontarget school showed little change as indicated by these figures: 94.3 percent in 1964-65; 95.3 percent in 1965-66; and 94.9 percent in 1966-67.

On a national scale the median daily attendance rates remained fairly steady from one school year (1965-66) to the next (1966-67) within each type of school (Table 2). However, most States reported increases in the attendance rates for all types of schools (Table 3).

Summary: From data reported by 23 States the following points may be drawn:

- Over two years, attendance is worse in Title I poverty schools than in other schools, and worse still in schools where the impact of poverty is heaviest. There is now nationwide evidence, previously only assumed to be true, that school attendance is correlated with the incidence of poverty.

- There is a gap of about 1.5 percent between the median attendance rates of heavily impacted Title I schools and schools which have no Title I children. In terms of school days, this means that students in the schools with heavy Title I participation—that is, where poverty was most general—were absent an average of 2 to 3 days more than other students during the academic year.

Table 2 / ATTENDANCE RATES

Median Attendance Rates and Average Daily Membership, by Type of School and School Year

School/ Year	Median rate [1]	ADM [2] (millions)
Non-Title I		
1965-66	.943	8.1
1966-67	.946	8.8
All Title I		
1965-66	.934	9.3
1966-67	.936	10.3
1/3 Title I [3]		
1965-66	.928	2.1
1966-67	.931	3.1

[1] Data submitted by 23 States: Alabama, Arkansas, California, Colorado, District of Columbia, Florida, Hawaii, Kansas, Louisiana, Massachusetts, Michigan, Mississippi, New Hampshire, New Mexico, New York, North Carolina, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Carolina, Tennessee, Utah, Virginia.

[2] Average daily membership was available for only 21 of the 23 States.

[3] Included in data for all Title I schools but represents only States that reported data for schools with one-third or more Title I participation.

- There is a pattern of decreasing attendance after the first year or two of school, a decrease which reaches a low around grades 9 and 10, then revives slightly at grade 11. Non-Title I schools also have a low attendance rate for grade 12. This is also shown in Figure 9.

Dropouts

The holding power of the public schools is at its highest point in history. At the turn of the century, only a few children finished 8th grade. By 1942-43, about 50 percent finished high school. Today, over 70 percent of the children in this country receive high school diplomas.

Although the dropout rate has been consistently declining, it remains a serious national problem. With the extraordinary advance of technology, youths who leave school early today are relatively much further behind their graduating classmates than was true only a few years ago.

The inability of the thousands of youths who drop out of school each year to compete in the employment market is not only a great loss to them personally but is also a significant manpower loss for the Nation.

Many things determine whether a child stays in school—compulsory attendance laws, the employment market for unskilled labor, military

Table 3 / CHANGES IN ATTENDANCE

Number of States Reporting Changes in Average Daily Attendance Rates [1] from School Year 1965-66 to School Year 1966-67, by Grade and Type of School

Grade	States [2] reporting that attendance—					
	Increased		Decreased		Did not change	
	Non Title-I	Title-I	Non Title-I	Title-I	Non Title-I	Title-I
1	13	11	6	7	2	2
2	15	13	4	6	2	2
3	10	15	9	2	2	4
4	15	15	4	4	1	1
5	14	12	6	7	1	2
6	13	16	6	3	2	1
7	10	10	8	8	3	3
8	12	12	7	6	1	3
9	9	7	8	12	4	2
10	13	12	3	7	4	2
11	12	6	6	12	3	3
12	12	7	7	13	2	1

[1] The term "daily attendance rate" refers to the average percent of pupils attending classes each day during one year.

[2] Include the following 21 States: Alabama, Arkansas, California, Colorado, District of Columbia, Florida, Kansas, Louisiana, Massachusetts, Michigan, Mississippi, New Hampshire, New Mexico, North Carolina, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Carolina, Tennessee, Utah. Virginia. Except: Massachusetts for grade 1, Title I; Rhode Island for grades 4 and 6, Title I, and grades 4 and 10, non-Title I; Utah, grade 8, non-Title I.

draft requirements, and his own personal, social, and economic situation. These same factors make it difficult to establish conclusive trend data on dropouts over a short-term basis. Sixteen States did, however, report fairly complete dropout data, and some conclusions may be drawn from their reports.

For one thing, the reports indicate that the dropout rate is decreasing in the Nation as a whole. The median percent of pupils dropping out of school was generally less for all types of schools in academic year 1966-67 than in 1965-66.

At the same time, however, schools covered by Title I programs had a higher dropout rate than other schools, and schools with heavy concentrations of Title I children had rates even higher. This simply bears out the well-established fact that disadvantaged children are dropout prone.

Grade-by-grade statistics (Table 4) reveal that the dropout rate picks up at grades 10 and 11. These are the peak grades for all types of schools, though the rate rises proportionally for the schools in relation to the degree of Title I participation.

Table 4 / DROPOUTS BY GRADE

Median Percent of Pupils Dropping Out for School Years 1965-66 and 1966-67, by Type of School and Grade

Type of school/grade	Median % [1] of dropouts	
	1965-66	1966-67
Non-Title I		
7	.90	.85
8	1.85	1.75
9	4.24	3.62
10	5.44	5.17
11	5.30	5.50
12	3.64	3.90
All Title I		
7	2.33	1.95
8	3.55	3.05
9	5.10	4.63
10	6.00	6.16
11	6.85	6.37
12	4.96	4.64
1/3 Title I [2]		
7	3.34	2.70
8	4.57	4.60
9	5.83	6.11
10	7.00	7.14
11	6.38	5.94
12	5.23	5.07

[1] Includes the following: Alabama, Arkansas, District of Columbia, Florida, Kansas, Louisiana, Maine, Michigan, Mississippi, New Hampshire, North Carolina, Ohio, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, Vermont, Virginia

[2] Only 10 of the 16 States reported dropouts for schools with one-third or more Title I participation.

Table 5 / CHANGES IN DROPOUT RATE

Number of States Reporting Decrease, Increase, or No Change in Percent of Dropouts from School Year 1965-66 to School Year 1966-67, by Type of School and Grade

School/ Change	Number of States					
	Grade					
	7	8	9	10	11	12
Non-Title I						
Total [1]	16	16	16	16	16	16
Decrease	10	12	11	10	9	7
Increase	4	3	4	6	7	7
No change	2	1	1	0	0	2
All Title I						
Total [1]	16	16	16	16	16	16
Decrease	12	14	14	12	12	10
Increase	3	2	2	4	3	5
No change	1	0	0	0	1	1
1/3 Title I						
Total [2]	10	10	10	10	10	10
Decrease	7	6	7	7	8	5
Increase	3	4	3	3	2	5
No change	0	0	0	0	0	0

[1] Includes the following: Alabama, Arkansas, District of Columbia, Florida, Kansas, Louisiana, Maine, Michigan, Mississippi, New Hampshire, North Carolina, Ohio, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, Vermont, Virginia.

[2] Only 10 of the 16 States reported dropouts for schools with one-third or more Title I participation.

Table 4 also shows a relatively high percent of pupils dropping out of Title I schools at grades 7 and 8. For example, in 1966-67, schools with a concentration of Title I pupils had over three times (3.2) as many dropouts in grade 7 as non-Title I schools; nearly three times (2.6) as many in the 8th grade. The percent of 12th-grade dropouts from Title I schools with one-third or more participation was nearly one and one-half times (1.3) that of non-Title I schools.

In considering any or all of these statistics, it must be remembered:

First, because Title I funds are concentrated in grades kindergarten through 6—grades in which few children of whatever their circumstance leave school—Title I cannot be expected to have a significant immediate effect on the overall dropout rate.

Second, the dropout rate nationally has been declining over the years; so these statistics must be seen in that context.

Third, because so many factors can contribute to "dropping out," only the most carefully evaluated, specially designed school programs may claim credit for a change in the dropout rate. Accordingly, the data presented here are most useful as a basis for evaluating and planning local school programs, and as an approximate baseline for comparison in the future.

Summary: Data from 16 States, based on approximately 6 million children, show that:

- The dropout rate is decreasing. This is a reflection of the characteristics of the children in the schools, the strength of the programs offered, and many economic and social factors.
- Decreases are reported most frequently for grades 8 and 9. These grades often mark the end of school for many youngsters, particularly for disadvantaged youngsters. It is the end of the junior high or the beginning of high school—transition points which tend to influence decisions of dropout-prone students. The disadvantaged child has frequently been held back a year or more, and by grade 8 or 9 he is already 16 years of age; in many States he is no longer compelled by law to attend school.
- The highest percentage of students dropout at grades 10 and 11.
- Most of the States reported decreases in the dropout rate from the academic year 1965-66 to 1966-67.
- Local educational agencies appear to have selected for Title I programs those schools where the dropout rates are highest.

Continuing Education

Two-thirds of America's parents expect their children to continue their education after high school. For more advantaged children, these expectations are being filled. In the more affluent communities, 90 percent of the high school graduates go on to further education. Nationally the figure is slightly over 50 percent; but in schools with heavy concentrations of Title I youngsters the rate is usually much less than 50 percent.

One way to measure the effects of educational programs is to look at the percentage and number of high school graduates who pursue their education in junior college, college, vocational, technical or commercial institutes, schools of nursing, or other institutions of higher education.

The percent of graduates continuing their education is shown in Table 6 for each of the three types of schools and for the two academic years of Title I activity. This percent increases fairly consistently from year to year for all three categories.

Table 6 indicates that from 1965-66 to 1966-67 the median percent of graduates of non-Title I schools continuing their educations rose from 58.4 percent to 59.8 percent—by 1.4 percentage points or about a 2-percent increase over the percent for the first year. In Title I schools the median percent over the same time period rose from 48.2 to 50.5 percent—2.3 percentage points or about 5 percent more. In schools with one-third or more Title I participation, the median percent rose from 40.8 to 41.8 percent—1 percentage point or about 2 percent over that of the first year.

Table 6 / FURTHER EDUCATION

School/ Year	High School Graduates	
	Median % cont'g	Median No.
Non-Title I [1]		
1965-66	58.4	8,028
1966-67	59.8	8,537
All Title I [1]		
1965-66	48.2	4,183
1966-67	50.5	4,874
1/3 Title I [2]		
1965-66	40.8	13,436
1966-67	41.8	14,062

[1] Determined from data submitted by 22 States: Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Hawaii, Illinois, Iowa, Louisiana, Maine, Maryland, Michigan, Minnesota, Mississippi, Nebraska, New Mexico, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, and West Virginia.

[2] Only 14 of the 22 States reported data for schools with one-third or more Title I participation.

A sampling of high school graduates in 10 big cities showed even more remarkable gains. (See Schools in the City, p.24) In 3 years—1964-65 to 1966-67—these cities saw a 10-percent increase in the number of graduates continuing their education.

Among the States reporting, there were more increases in continuing education than decreases (Table 7). More than about three-fourths of the States indicated a larger percent of high school graduates going on to other institutions in 1966-67 than in 1965-66.

In considering these statistics, several related factors must be taken into account.

First, numerous high schools are identified as Title I schools because they draw from a large area that includes children from Title I elementary schools. This tends to exaggerate the number of Title I high schools and thus wash out the great differences that exist between high schools serving poor families and those serving the more affluent. Accordingly, a truer picture may be seen by comparing Title I schools with one-third or more participation and non-Title I high schools.

A second factor to keep in mind is that the number and percent of high schools with Title I programs are changing continually—in the Nation, within States, and even within the large school districts that have many high schools. Third, the definition and criteria for selecting a high school for Title I coverage necessarily change from school district to school district. A rich suburban high school that has a program for educationally deprived children coming from a small pocket of poverty is a Title I high school in these statistics just as much as a deeply troubled inner city or rural Appalachian mountain school which is completely populated by children from very poor families. The one-third or more classification is an attempt—not perfect by any means—to differentiate between these two extremes.

Finally, any changes in the percent of graduates continuing their education may be due to a number of factors associated with the economic and social characteristics of the schools, the communities, the families, and the children. Only in instances of carefully evaluated individual school programs could one say that a

Table 7 / CHANGES IN FURTHER EDUCATION

Number and Percent of States Reporting Increases or Decreases in Percentages of High School Graduates Continuing Their Education, from School Year 1965-66 to School Year 1966-67

Percentages cont'g that—	States reporting for—					
	Non-Title I [1]		All Title I [1]		1/3 Title I [2]	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Total	22	100	22	100	14	100
Increased	17	77	18	82	10	71
Did not Change	0	0	0	0	0	0
Decreased	5	23	4	18	4	29

[1] Determined from data submitted by 22 States: Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Hawaii, Illinois, Iowa, Louisiana, Maine, Maryland, Michigan, Minnesota, Mississippi, Nebraska, New Mexico, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, and West Virginia.

[2] Only 14 of the 22 States reported data for schools with one-third or more Title I participation.

change in the percent of graduates continuing education was due to any specific school program.

The data do, however, serve to give national trends and pictures, and may be used as an approximate baseline for the future.

Summary: With these factors in mind the following conclusions can be drawn:

- The median percentages of high school graduates continuing their education rose over the 2-year period in all three classifications of schools.
- The rate of increase as well as the actual increase—in median percentages—was higher in the Title I schools than in the non-Title I schools, comparing school year 1965-66 with school year 1966-67. Indeed, if the actual median percentage increase over this one year is projected into the future, the Title I schools would gain on the more affluent schools.
- Students do, of course, leave the educational system at every point. One may infer from attendance statistics, as well as those for dropouts, that the picture would be much worse if students were followed from an earlier grade level. The data in this report deal only with the percentages of graduates who continue their education. If we were dealing with the percentage of, say, 5th graders who reach higher education, the differences between Title I schools and non-Title I schools would certainly be much more sobering.

III

SCHOOLS IN THE CITY

The city will not be transformed until the lives of the least among its dwellers are changed as well. Until men whose days are empty and despairing can see better days ahead, until they can stand proud and know their children's lives will be better than their own—until that day comes, the city will not truly be rebuilt.

Remarks by President Lyndon B. Johnson
in "The Crisis of the Cities,"
1968 message to Congress.

THE DAYTON STUDY

The Office of Education commissioned Dr. C. Mitchell Dayton of the University of Maryland to make a broad-scale examination of the effect of Title I on academic achievement in large center cities.

The study focused on achievement in reading and arithmetic as measured by standardized tests administered before and after the conduct of Title I projects supported during the 1966-67 academic year.

Of the Nation's 100 largest central city school systems, 80 responded to requests for information. Many had to be eliminated, however, because their data could not be adjusted to certain necessary standards established for the survey. Two types of achievement data were used: Pretest and posttest average grade equivalent scores for participating pupils, and pretest and posttest frequencies of student placements in the quarters of national norm groups. Only nationally standarized tests were included. In the interests of reliability, reporting samples were required to be larger than 50 pupils.

Since each city report conformed to its own State's model, there were difficulties caused by the dissimilarity of presentation and content of the reports. Many standardized tests were reported.

Comparability among tests was sought to the extent possible by using either percentile scores or grade equivalent scores. Since it is not possible to assert absolute equivalence of percentile ranks among tests, or to assert absolute equivalence of grade equivalent scores, there is no completely satisfactory way to summarize such scores. To establish truly equivalent scores would require a massive testing effort.

Every attempt was made to use as much of the data as possible. Nothing was eliminated because it was "unfavorable," in the sense of showing poor gains in achievement. Usable reading data came from 39 cities (Table 8).

Grade equivalent data covered 38,534 pupils in 22 of the 39 cities. Data which ranked pupil achievement by quarter included 29,069 pupils in 29 of the cities. Table 9 shows the number

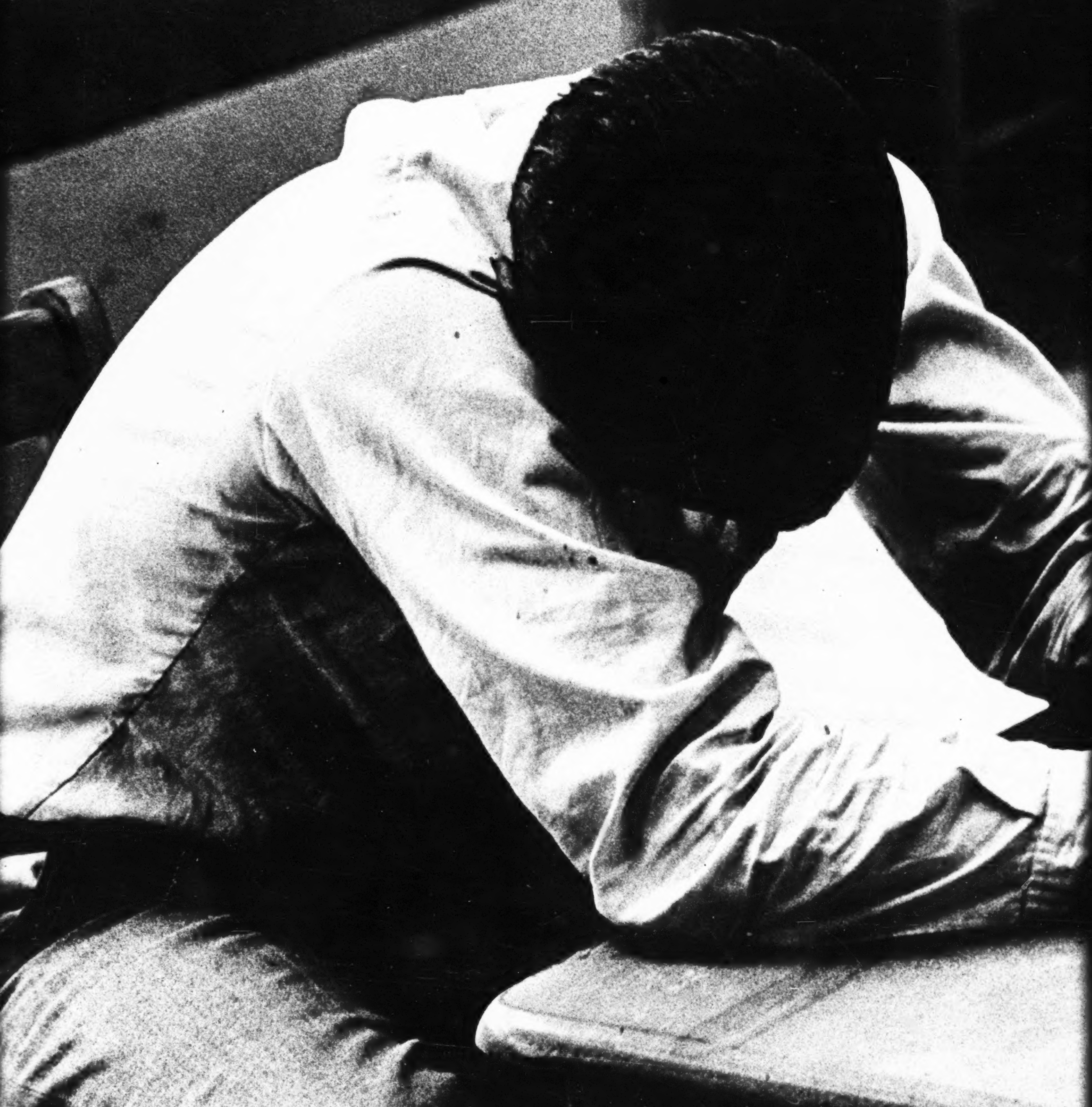


Table 8 / LARGE CITY SCHOOL DISTRICTS
Public School Enrollment, Title I Participants and Expenditures for 39 Selected Cities

Fall '66
FY 1967

School District	Population Jan. 1, '67	Enrollment	Title I		Per Pupil Expenditure	
			Partici-pants	Expendi-tures	A[1]	B[1]
TOTAL	(thousands) 17,194.2	(thousands) 3,011.5	(thousands) 757.2	(thousands) $67,305.8	$90[2]	$200[2]
Dade County, Fla.	1,151.6	202.1	29.7	3,275.4	110	110
Houston, Texas	1,146.9	228.2	45.6	3,496.1	77	480
Dallas, Texas	837.9	150.3	14.0	2,381.5	170	180
District of Columbia	810.6	146.0	40.2	5,397.4	134	260
St. Louis, Mo.	715.8	116.2	66.6	4,413.9	66	600
San Antonio, Texas	697.7	71.4	21.0	2,862.3	136	160
San Diego, Calif.	687.9	118.5	30.4	2,217.2	73	150
New Orleans, La.	674.6	107.4	51.0	4,075.1	80	410
Boston, Mass.	670.2	91.4	20.3	3,631.0	179	230
Memphis, Tenn.	612.9	119.7	30.1	2,720.0	90	130
Atlanta, Ga.	528.0	110.4	54.4	2,653.6	49	400
Indianapolis, Ind.	526.4	105.0	41.6	1,309.0	31	120
Phoenix, Ariz.	518.8	35.0[3]	16.3	720.3	44	120
Duval County, Fla.	517.6	117.8	9.3	2,318.3	250	430
Minneapolis, Minn.	488.9	77.8	9.9	2,486.1	251	200
Nashville, Tenn.	466.1	89.5	30.4	1,267.9	42	70
Hillsborough Co., Fla.	465.6	94.6	13.1	2,083.2	160	280
Pinnellas County, Fla.	463.7	69.2	11.5	1,147.9	100	260
Oakland, Calif.	389.5	66.2	12.3	2,508.5	204	250
Long Beach, Calif.	381.3	73.3	8.0	1,660.7	207	550
Omaha, Neb.	355.0	59.0	15.4	793.5	52	100
Honolulu, Hawaii	353.8	70.0	9.9	810.0	82	180
Birmingham, Ala.	352.5	70.3	53.9	1,705.5	32	300
El Paso, Texas	330.4	53.9	4.6	952.1	209	170
St. Paul, Minn.	317.9	48.5	4.8	1,220.9	254	500
Wichita, Kans.	286.3	71.3	15.5	1,104.5	71	410
Sacramento, Calif.	274.8	52.3	7.4	963.1	131	240
Tucson, Ariz.	257.1	2.1[3]	.7	25.0	35	130
Richmond, Va.	224.5	44.4	8.0	1,269.8	159	140
Austin, Texas	224.4	39.0	17.5	837.6	48	190
Flint, Mich.	212.6	48.5	4.6	562.1	121	130
Salt Lake City, Utah	199.2	39.1	1.4	288.7	204	240
Amarillo, Texas	169.1	31.8	4.1	296.0	72	70
Lubbock, Texas	164.5	32.6	3.9	426.3	108	200
Fresno, Calif.	162.4	55.4	17.9	1,295.5	73	130
Evansville, Ind.	146.9	29.9	11.2	617.3	55	70
South Bend, Ind.	138.9	33.3	9.8	464.7	47	50
Chattanooga, Tenn.	136.9	27.5	8.8	771.7	87	300
Greensboro, N.C.	135.0	29.4	3.0	276.1	91	230

[1] A. The average per pupil expenditure. Arrived at by dividing expenditures by participants.
B. Estimated average per pupil expenditure. Arrived at from estimates by each city school system in the Dayton analysis.

[2] Median expenditure derived from data of all cities reporting.

[3] Includes only school districts reporting test data used in the analysis.

of city school systems and students included at each grade level.

For grades 2 through 7, sufficient data were available to warrant summarization and interpretation, but many of the cities did not supply data at all grade levels.

Fortunately for interpretive purposes, the city systems comprised a reasonably representative sample from the total pool of 100 largest city school systems in the United States. Table 10 shows the number of school systems used in the analysis that fall within each quarter of the national size distribution.

Since the length of time between pretests and posttests varied among the individual school systems, it was necessary to rescale the results for each testing period so that all projects would have the same testing interval. While some of

Table 9 / READING DATA

Number of School Districts and Pupils for Which Reading Test Data Were Submitted, by Type of Data and Grade

Grade	Grade Equiv.		Qtr. Dist.	
	Dist's	Pupils	Dist's	Pupils
Total	—	38,534	—	29,069
2	13	6,826	12	3,975
3	13	6,592	14	4,521
4	12	5,863	20	6,942
5	12	7,556	16	4,995
6	10	6,347	14	3,695
7	13	5,350	16	4,941

Table 10 / BIG CITIES

Number and Percent of School Districts Submitting Reading Test Data, by Type of Data and Size of City

City size range[1]	Districts submitting			
	Grade Equiv.		Qtr. Dist.	
	No.	%	No.	%
Total	22	100.0	29	100.0
1–25	6	27.3	8	27.6
26–50	6	27.3	9	31.0
51–75	6	27.3	7	24.1
76–100	4	18.1	5	17.3

[1] School districts were ranked from 1 to 100, beginning with the largest, based on U.S. census data for the respective cities represented.

Table 11 / READING GAINS

Adjusted Average Grade Equivalent Gains, by Number of Districts Reporting, Number of Pupils Tested and Grade.

Grade	Dist's	Pupils	Average gain[1] (months)
2	13	6,826	10.3
3	13	6,592	9.8
4	12	5,863	9.3
5	12	7,556	10.7
6	10	6,347	9.3
7	13	5,350	12.4

[1] Average gain in each district weighted by the number of pupils tested.

the test-retest intervals were 4 months or less, others were longer than 12 months. All gains were adjusted to a test-retest interval of 10 months to conform to the length of the academic year. It should be emphasized, however, that the adjustment of the reported achievement gains to the 10-month time base assumes a constant rate of gain over the reported time periods and over the 10-month base period. Moreover, it is assumed that the rate of gain for the reported period will remain the same for the 10-month base period.

These adjusted grade-equivalent gains may be interpreted as representing rates of change. Thus, a school system having an adjusted gain of 9 months had participating students who, on the average, were gaining nine-tenths of a month for each month they were in the program between pretest and posttest. This would be, of course, an average rate of gain and might fluctuate from month to month.

Although there is variation from grade to grade and test to test, it is assumed that the rate of gain in school as measured by standardized tests for the average pupil is about 1 month of gain for 1 month of instruction.

The gain for low-income area schools (such as Title I target schools) lacking massive remedial supportive services is typically much less than that.

Dr. Dayton's compilations showed that the city projects under study reported a substantially greater rate of student achievement than the expected rate for city low-income area schools. The average reading achievement rates in these reading projects approximated the normal expected rate of 1 month of gain for 1 month of instruction.

Since the city school systems contained widely differing numbers of participating pupils, the mean gains were computed by weighting the school system mean gains by the number of pupils in the school systems.

An average gain of between 9 and 12 months was recorded for pupils at all grade levels, well within the range of the national average gain of 10 months during an academic year.

To provide an additional baseline of comparison, pretest to pretest median differences for consecutive grades were computed for those school systems which supplied data for at least two consecutive grade levels, such as for grades 4 and 5, or grades 5 and 6. The result was a cross-section of the median gain from grade to grade. The typical grade equivalent gain from grade to grade was found to be approximately 7 months. This meant that the median pretest grade equivalent score, which was 2.2 for third graders, rose to 2.9 for fourth graders, and so on.

Viewed in this fashion, the test results, again showed that pupils involved in the Title I projects in the study not only exceeded the rate of gain they typically would have made, but approximated the norm gain rate of 10 months in an academic year.

The quarter distribution data, shown in Table 12, also reflected this improvement. The overwhelming majority of students were still in the bottom half of the norm group after posttesting, but more of them had moved upward than had fallen back.

Table 13 shows reading results from six cities in the study. These cities, used for illustrative purposes, were selected on the basis of having submitted complete grade equivalent scores for at least 5 grades.

From left to right, the table shows:

1. The city and grade levels with letters identifying the type of test.

2. The number of pupils tested.

3. The mean grade equivalent scores for pretests and posttests.

4. The test interval.

5. The actual gain during the test interval.

6. The gain for 10 months is the actual gain adjusted to the 10-month school year. This assumes there is the same constant rate of gain for both the test interval and the 10-month school year.

7. The projected mean grade equivalent, meaning the expected beginning-year average performance assuming that the gain is cumulative at the same rate of gain actually experienced for each grade during the tested period. It was possible to obtain this projection by using the actual pretest to posttest average gains. The projected values were obtained by successively adding the adjusted 10-month gains by grade level. The projections should be interpreted as an optimistic view of the growth potential of pupils participating in the activities being implemented with Title I money. Only future data can tell us if the children in these projects sustain their initial gains.

In some of the cities there were dramatic cumulative improvements projected for Title I participants. The cases selected for presentation show the potential impact of long term exposure to Title I projects. Varying rates of gains are taking place in the school systems, but, in general, participation in Title I reading projects seems to have a very positive effect on the achievement of educationally deprived children.

Table 12 / CHANGE IN RANK

Changes in Percentages of Participants per Quarter
of Norm Group Distributions from Pretest to Posttest for Reading Achievement

Grade	Quarter				Number of Pupils
	Lowest	Second	Third	Highest	
2	0.7	0.3	−8.3	7.4	3,975
3	−4.8	−0.7	2.0	3.7	4,521
4	−6.4	2.1	1.3	2.9	6,942
5	−2.5	2.0	−1.2	1.6	4,995
6	−7.5	2.4	3.9	1.2	3,695
7	−6.5	3.2	0.5	2.8	4,941

Beyond adequate financing and careful planning, the success of the reading projects depends to a great extent on the professional resources of the school systems—the intelligence of administration and the proficiency of teachers—and the severity of the problem in terms of the number of pupils and their educational deficiencies.

The Title I reading programs in the six cities (Table 13) are based upon the same approach—an intensification of instruction in classes of reduced size.

A large portion of reading program money went for the hiring of additional teachers—a direct assault on the problem of class size. Some schools hired teacher aides to increase the time a teacher spent with each child.

Special reading teachers were hired, if they were available, and where they were not, classroom teachers were retrained. Reading specialists and resource teachers moved from school to school within the systems to provide technical help.

Table 13 / BIG CITY ACHIEVEMENTS

Actual and Projected Reading Achievement Gains in Grade Equivalent (G.E.) Scores, by City and Grade

City, Grade and Test	Pupils	Mean G.E.		Test Interval (Mos.)	Actual gain (Mos.)	Gain Adjusted for 10 Mos.	Projected G.E. (thru May)
		Pre	Post[1]				
Birmingham							
3—a	585	2.1	2.6	5	5	10	2.6
4—a	637	2.6	3.0	5	4	8	3.4
5—a	672	3.7	4.4	5	7	14	4.8
6—a	613	4.5	5.2	5	7	14	6.2
7—a	572	5.1	5.7	5	6	12	7.4
Boston							
2—b	2214	2.4	3.5	7.3	11	14	3.5
3—c	2067	2.7	3.6	7.3	9	11	4.6
4—d	1739	3.0	3.9	7.3	9	11	5.7
5—d	1435	3.6	4.6	7.3	10	13	7.0
6—d	1352	4.4	5.2	7.3	8	10	8.0
Flint							
2—d	688	1.6	2.1	7	5	7	2.1
3—d	509	2.1	2.8	7	7	10	3.1
4—d	554	2.7	3.4	7	7	10	4.1
5—d	476	3.2	4.0	7	8	11	5.2
6—d	471	4.2	4.8	7	6	9	6.1
Indianapolis							
2—c	460	1.7	2.3	7.75	6	8	2.3
3—c	464	2.3	2.9	7.75	6	8	3.1
4—c	562	2.6	3.3	4.75	7	14	4.5
5—c	551	3.8	4.3	7.75	5	7	5.2
6—c	521	4.4	5.0	7.75	6	8	6.0
7—c	331	5.2	5.7	7.75	5	7	6.7
Long Beach							
2—d	435	1.5	1.8	8	3	4	1.8
3—d	292	1.8	2.5	8	7	9	2.7
4—d	218	2.2	2.7	8	5	6	3.3
5—d	214	2.9	3.4	8	5	6	3.9
6—d	200	3.8	4.4	8	6	8	4.7
7—d	258	4.1	5.0	8	9	11	5.8
Sacramento							
2—d	385	1.6	2.3	10	7	7	2.3
3—e	370	2.2	2.9	10	7	7	3.0
4—e	446	3.5	4.5	10	10	10	4.0
5—e	369	4.6	5.2	10	6	6	4.6
6—e	330	5.2	5.8	10	6	6	5.2

a—Stanford Diagnostic Reading Test
b—Gates Primary Reading Test
c—Metropolitan Elementary Reading Test
d—Stanford Achievement Test (Paragraph Meaning)
e—California Achievement Test (Reading)

[1] Pretests given in fall, posttests given in spring except for Birmingham, all grades, and Indianapolis, grade 4, pretested in December.

Health aides, social workers, guidance counselors, physicians, psychologists, and psychiatrists provided supportive services.

Children identified as needing remedial reading help got instruction in varying amounts, some in half-day sessions, others in short periods. Usually the children were taken out of their regular classrooms for more intensive instruction. Many schools used tutorial systems with one or two pupils for each teacher.

These kinds of staff requirements, plus instructional materials and equipment, make compensatory education a costly endeavor. Houston, for instance, spent about $480 a year per pupil from Title I funds for intensive reading instruction and other services. This amount was in addition to the regular local financial support.

In California where evaluators point to more than 100 compensatory education programs in which children from poverty backgrounds made gains that match the national norms in basic subjects—Charles Benson, professor of education of the University of California, estimated that these successful reading programs cost about $250 per pupil for activities occupying only a fraction of the school day.

These programs generally included specialist teachers, extensive diagnostic services, a pupil-teacher ratio of 5-to-1 or in some cases even lower, and extensive materials and equipment.

Title I is being spent, in some places, in mass sums that match these figures. Obviously, schools with problems surpassing the size of their budgets cannot work out a solution that gives every child the amount of help he needs.

Table 8, which is a list of the 39 cities that were included in Dr. Dayton's analysis for the U.S. Office of Education, tells a partial story of the problem of cost versus need. A detailed check with these cities revealed that many were concentrating substantial resources on a few thousand children in the most deprived schools. But, many more children received peripheral services—such as, a teacher aide, ETV in the school, or cultural enrichment activities.

This explains why in many cities the average per pupil Title I expenditure may have been quite low while the expenditures for small groups of children on whom resources were concentrated (See Table 8) were substantially higher.

This is how many cities "solved" the dilemma of concentration vs. spreading the money over all children who were clearly eligible and in need of Title I help. In effect, they did both. Even though Title I children represent only a small proportion of the total public school enrollment, allocations of $2,000,000 and $3,000,000 often dissolve into less than $100 per Title I pupil—amounts that fail to achieve concentration of resources necessary to mount truly fruitful programs.

Arithmetic Scores

Besides the analysis of reading data, a study was made of the arithmetic scores from the same sample of cities.

The available sample of Title I arithmetic projects for Dr. Dayton's survey was small—from less than 10 cities. Grade-equivalent figures were usable for only 5,698 pupils distributed over grades 2 through 7 in a range from 188 to 1,825. Each grade was represented by two to four city systems. Quarter distribution figures were available for 4,039 pupils. Each grade was represented by one to five city systems and 147 to 1,253 pupils.

Because of the small number in the arithmetic sample, gains at each grade level were not considered to be as significant as those in the reading survey. The overall grade-equivalent achievement rate in arithmetic was nearly a month's gain for each month of instruction.

Other Data

In addition to the achievement data related to reading and arithmetic projects, information was collected from the cities on attendance, dropouts and the number of pupils who continued their education after graduation.

Dr. Dayton attempted to measure the "holding power" of Title I schools using dropout figures. For the schools examined, the 1966-67 figures showed a gain of 5 percentage points over the previous year in holding power in Title I schools by grade 12, and also a grade-by-grade improvement (Table 14).

Table 14 / HOLDING POWER

Percent of Pupils Entering Grade 7 Who Complete Grades 7 through 12, by Type of School, School Year and Grade.

Type School/ Grade	1965–66	1966–67
Non-Title I		
Enter 7	100.0	100.0
End 7	99.7	99.8
End 8	98.8	99.1
End 9	94.5	95.6
End 10	88.5	89.3
End 11	82.2	82.4
End 12	77.9	77.5
Title I		
Enter 7	100.0	100.0
End 7	98.2	98.7
End 8	94.8	96.1
End 9	86.8	88.6
End 10	74.9	78.5
End 11	64.4	68.6
End 12	57.3	62.3

A similar trend was not apparent in schools outside target areas. The holding power by grade 12 in these schools diminished by 0.4 percent. However, this positive change in Title I schools still left them with 15.2 percent more dropouts than the other schools by grade 12.

In order to compute the total dropouts as a percentage figure, the number of pupils entering grade 7 was considered as the baseline or total number in the sample. Thus by the end of the 7th grade 1.8 percent of the pupils had dropped out, leaving 98.2 percent. By the end of grade 8 the dropouts totaled 3.4 percent of the 98.2 percent.

The figures on attendance, like the figures on dropouts, provide a partial portrait of the type of school that qualifies as a Title I target school. For each year reported, the rates of attendance at all grade levels were substantially higher for non-Title I schools.

Over a three year period, from 1964-65 to 1966-67, no encouraging trend appeared. There seemed to be a widening gulf between attendance of pupils from Title I schools and pupils from other schools.

Continuing education data were available from 10 city school systems for the 1964-65 academic year and from 12 systems for 1965-66 and 1966-67.

Only those school systems supplying information on continuing education for a 3-year period are included in Table 15, which shows that with each academic year a higher percentage of graduates from both Title I and non-Title I schools furthered their education. Of special note is the large increase in the percentage of graduates from Title I schools who went on to school between 1966 and 1967. A year earlier the increase was only 1.8 percent; between 1966 and 1967 it rose 8.4 percent.

Table 15 / CONTINUING EDUCATION

Number and Percent of High School Graduates Continuing Their Education, by Type of School and School Year.

Type School/ Year	Graduates	
	Number	% Continuing
Non-Title I		
1964–65	22,185	53.1
1965–66	33,845	58.9
1966–67	33,939	63.7
Title I		
1964–65	21,060	37.9
1965–66	31,223	39.7
1966–67	31,053	48.1

Conclusions

1. First, although the number of students in the projects reported is substantial, it is only a percentage of the poorly prepared, undereducated children in those cities.

This means that the improvements made by some of the pupils in intensified reading projects are far over-shadowed by the mass of those who are not receiving such concentrated help.

Meanwhile, studies by the Office of Education and information supplied by the cities clearly show an intensification of the problem: A greater number of disadvantaged children in the cities; a higher proportion of disadvantaged in the total school population; and a higher concentration of the most seriously disadvantaged.

2. The programs of concentrated study which seem to be the ones that show the greatest potential for success are extremely expensive in terms of resources—teachers, space, specialists, materials. These resources—money, staff,

space—are limited in any city. To extend the effort to match the need would require a mobilization effort—including teacher recruiting programs, university training, classroom construction, specialist training—more far-reaching than any now envisioned by any community.

3. Programs that show signs of immediate success often are not, from a long-range point of view, really successful because the children begin so far behind more fortunate students and have so far to go to catch up. Under the most optimistic assumptions of normal progress, Title I children remain behind all through their school career because they start so far behind on the first test administered to them in school.

Therefore, a gain that matches the norm is not sufficient. In order to reduce the gap between the average scores for Title I schools and those of other schools, the Title I group must achieve at a greater rate than the norm.

4. Another problem arises from the duration of academic gain. While loss of academic achievement often takes place among children during the summer vacation from school, the loss is especially marked among those from poor families.

To illustrate, Table 16 shows the seasonal differences in reading levels revealed in an analysis of the More Effective Schools program in New York City. For each of 3 years, the table presents the changes from fall to spring and from spring to the fall testing to the new school year.

In nine comparisons measuring the school year from fall to spring, six showed improvements better than average, one was average, and two fell behind.

From spring to fall, however, the record turns bad. During these summer months, there was no improvement in relation to the norms. In six comparisons, ground was lost five times and retained only once.

Table 16 / SUMMER SETBACKS IN READING

Changes in Reading Level, Fall to Spring and Spring to Fall, MES, October 1964 to April 1967

Grades	Change	Year 1 Oct. '64		May '65		Year 2 Oct. '65		May '66		Year 3 Oct. '66		April '67	All Three Years
2,3,4	Median	1.8		2.4		2.6		3.7		3.3		3.9	
	Fall to Spring		+.6				+1.1				+.6		
	Expected		+.7				+ .7				+.6		
	Net		–.1				+ .4				0		+ .3
	Spring to Fall				+.2				–0.4				
	Expected				+.3				+ .3				
	Net				–.1				–0.7				– .8
3,4,5	Median	2.6		3.4		3.4		4.2		3.8		4.5	
	Fall to Spring		+.8				+ .8				+.7		
	Expected		+.7				+ .7				+.6		
	Net		+.1				+ .1				+.1		+ .3
	Spring to Fall				0				– .4				
	Expected				+.3				+ .3				
	Net				–.3				– .7				–1.0
4,5,6	Median	3.0		4.1		4.4		5.2		5.1		5.5	
	Fall to Spring		+1.1				+ .8				+.4		
	Expected		+ .7				+ .7				+.6		
	Net		+ .4				+ .1				–.2		+ .3
	Spring to Fall				+.3				– .1				
	Expected				+.3				+ .3				
	Net				0				– .4				– .4

Thus a teacher in such a situation must spend at least the first few months or more each fall making up losses which had occurred since the previous spring. Although some loss is normal, the degree of retrogression among disadvantaged children is so much higher as to be a matter of real concern. The "normal" gain children show from October to April may actually be only a recovery of what was lost during the summer.

5. Pupil mobility interferes with the effectiveness of programs and affects test scores. A program's effectiveness inevitably diminishes when those enrolled in it cannot be followed through a full school year or from year-to-year.

In a school with a great deal of pupil mobility, year-by-year testing may reflect the changing socioeconomic level of the neighborhood far more than the quality of a school's program.

Pupil mobility—the movement of a child from one school to another because of moves by his family—seems to have a more subtle effect on school achievement than the obvious one of interrupting the continuity of the child's school year. This was demonstrated by a study of pupil mobility related to reading achievement in New York City's MES schools (Table 17).

Three groups of pupils were identified: (1) Those whose education had been solely at an MES school during the 3 years the program was in effect; (2) those who had been attending another school and transferred before the full 3-year MES program began; (3) those who transferred from some other school into the MES school after the MES program had begun. (In Table 17 the term "unbroken" refers to education uninterrupted by moves into other schools. The term "full" refers to a full 3-year MES program.)

The figures clearly demonstrate that those pupils with continuous education in one school and in a full MES program did best; those who transferred from another school did not do as well, even though they received the full MES approach; those who transferred into the program and had less than the full 3 years of MES did the poorest.

It appears that pupil mobility, at least in target area schools, is another characteristic accompanied by poor academic achievement.

All of the evidence concerning the first 2 years of Title I operations suggests that a sustained, intensive program to bring children to reading competency can be made to work if the program starts early in their school lives and if they continue in it throughout each year.

There is the further indication that the curriculums in every grade through high school and college should be reinforced by programs specifically aimed at maintaining reading skills. Among other things, such programs could help youngsters in the upper grades make up for their failure to achieve reading mastery at an earlier period in their career in school.

Table 17 / CONTINUOUS EDUCATION IMPORTANT

Comparison of Reading Levels for Children with Different Educational Histories by Grade, Original MES Schools

Current Grade	Gp.	Education	MES	Median	Q3	Q1	Inter-quartile Range	Norm
4	1	Unbroken	Full	4.1	4.9	3.4	1.5	
	2	Broken	Full	3.9	4.6	3.2	1.4	4.7
	3	Broken	Partial	3.6	4.3	3.1	1.2	
5	1	Unbroken	Full	4.9	6.0	4.1	1.9	
	2	Broken	Full	4.7	5.7	3.9	1.8	5.7
	3	Broken	Partial	4.4	5.4	3.7	1.7	
6	1	Unbroken	Full	5.9	8.7	4.8	3.9	
	2	Broken	Full	5.6	7.3	4.4	2.9	6.7
	3	Broken	Partial	5.0	7.0	4.0	3.0	

However, this is treating symptoms rather than causes. The more deprived the child the more likely that success will elude any efforts which do not deal with the root causes of learning failures—low self-esteem, lack of confidence, racial discrimination, poor health, poor nutrition, or any other unmet basic human need.

The least expensive, most productive place to start to solve these social problems is not in schools and at school age, but in the homes and communities with programs that include babies, infants, and expectant mothers.

The schools must at the same time mount a drive—perhaps supported in part with Title I funds—to make themselves more relevant to the lives of the children already in school.

Such a program would have to include textbooks and courses that are truly germane to the life students lead. It would require the recruitment and development of teachers who understand why these children are the way they are. And it would have to demonstrate to the students that education can make a difference in their lives.

Title I is already paying for those kinds of changes in the schools. Its presence will become more meaningful each year as more people become concerned and more people are encouraged to work with these children.

THE ROLE OF TITLE I

Compensatory education in cities cannot be viewed as a classroom remedy. The scope of its task, if it is to succeed, demands community redevelopment, not simply doing more or better in the schools of the poor than was done in the past.

What cities have become is well-documented and acknowledged. With the accumulating concentration of the poor in the cities—particularly such minority group members as Negroes, Mexican-Americans, and Puerto Ricans—public education and the city communities stopped addressing each other meaningfully. No part of the Nation has escaped the consequences.

Title I target areas are neighborhoods of desperation where problems often rage out of control. Poverty, violence, delinquency, unemployment, infant mortality, and other categories of misery form a hostile environment for compensatory education and every other kind of positive educational effort.

Title I and the legal requirement for evaluation of its programs is exposing and measuring the severity of the plight of the schools.

The state of education in the cities, nationally, and neighborhood by neighborhood, may be far worse than the judgments rendered in the past by its most severe critics.

Here, as example, is the situation in St. Louis, as described by the superintendent of schools:

Despite the City's net population loss of 130,000, or 15 percent, the public school enrollment rose 24 percent. Today 62 percent of the pupils in the public schools live in slum tenement areas and, by virtue of the City's more than 33,000 Aid to Dependent Children (which increased 8 percent last year), are eligible for Federal Title I beneficence. These poverty areas are erratically unstable, and the mobility of pupils is so great that one-half of them move each year. Some are enrolled in a dozen different schools in one school year. In the 33 high-rise buildings of the Pruitt-Igoe housing project 6,944, or 66 percent, of the 10,496 residents are under 16 years of age and 67 percent of the households are without a male head of the family.

Vandalism costs in the schools now exceed $100,000 a year despite our investments in burglar alarms, yard lighting, fencing, and window screening. Some of our school personnel have been physically assaulted and their cars have been damaged. We have had to employ twenty-eight security guards in the elementary and high schools to date, to protect our students and teachers from neighborhood toughs.

When we made our first application for Title I funds in 1966, the evidence for a 10-year interval showed that:

Almost seven times as many St. Louis Public School children were being referred to community agencies for help for emotional, social, and health problems.
The number referred to Juvenile Probation officers for severe misbehavior or for parental neglect had increased 84 percent.

Truancy had increased by 46 percent, suspensions in grades 4 through 8 by 71 percent, high school suspensions by 1,200 percent, high school dropouts by 100 percent.

Of the 71,200, or 62 percent, of our children who live in poverty area school districts, two-thirds are retarded a half year or more in reading, language, and arithmetic. In the basic tool subjects of reading and arithmetic, the city medians in the 8th grade are now more than a half year behind national norms. In one typical poverty area district the median scores are more than a year behind. In one typical non-poverty area the median scores are well above national norms. Poverty and low achievement as measured by standard tests go hand in hand.

The evidence relentlessly shows that poor children must have smaller classes, counselors, social workers, psychologists, and nurses to support well-trained and dedicated teachers. But last school year we had over 900 out of 2,100 elementary classrooms with 36 or more pupils and over 400 substitute teachers in the regular classroom assignments. This year we are transporting 1,565 pupils in 36 buses because their home schools are overcrowded. With an average class size throughout the system of about 34 pupils in the elementary grades, many teachers are bewildered by the problems they must face.

Last year we had to provide 52 remedial reading teachers in poverty area schools at an annual local expense of $339,503 (plus 46 more with Federal support) and to operate six reading clinics at an annual local cost of $210,642. We spent $378,267 to sustain the understaffed pupil services division, whose major function is to keep children in school and to get them the kind of non-instructional services they need to stay there. Because the City is unable to provide adequate health services for the schools, the Board of Education bears an additional expense of more than $400,000 a year for health services, including the salaries of 63 overworked school nurses.

Children come to school hungry in St. Louis. Last year the local taxpayers had to contribute nearly $300,000 in school tax money to sustain a lunch program which served only a third of our elementary schools. As the number of free and reduced-price lunches for indigent pupils has increased during the past 3 years from 225,899 to 465,367 to 536,054, and as the Board of Education is trying to give an equal shake to pupils in all schools, we shall, this year, have to dig into the till to the extent of an additional quarter of a million dollars. Last summer we tapped this source for more than $70,000 to give 239,000 breakfasts to hungry summer school children.

That is the St. Louis story, but poverty and discrimination toll the same tragic details in big city school systems throughout the Nation.

Poverty and Achievement

The effect of depressed economic environments on school achievement is demonstrated by a study made for the Office of Education by Dr. John T. Dailey, former director of the Education Research Project of George Washington University and now special assistant for psychology in the Office of Aviation Medicine, Federal Aviation Administration.

Reading test scores were gathered in 9 major American city school systems as a measure to determine how educational attainment differed between low-income area schools and schools not in low-income areas (termed "other schools" in the study). The cities were Philadelphia, San Francisco, Minneapolis, Washington, D.C., Seattle, Detroit, Oakland, New York and Miami. Criteria for choosing target schools resulted in remarkably similar schools being chosen across the nine cities.

Dr. Dailey devised a scale to overcome the problem of comparing tests used by the cities. Only the variations between reading levels or between achievement rates were examined, not the actual reading levels or rates themselves.

An analysis of reading scores in all grades for 1 year revealed that typically there was a wide gap between the low-income area schools and the other schools (Figure14).There was a heavy concentration of scores around the medians for both groups, but particularly around the low-income area median. On a 0-30 scale the gap between the two groups of schools was one-third of the total range of scores.

Both groups of scores also showed considerable dispersion, ranging across the entire scale. This

THE READING GAP

Nine-City Distribution of Relative Reading Achievement for Various Grades in Low-Income and other schools

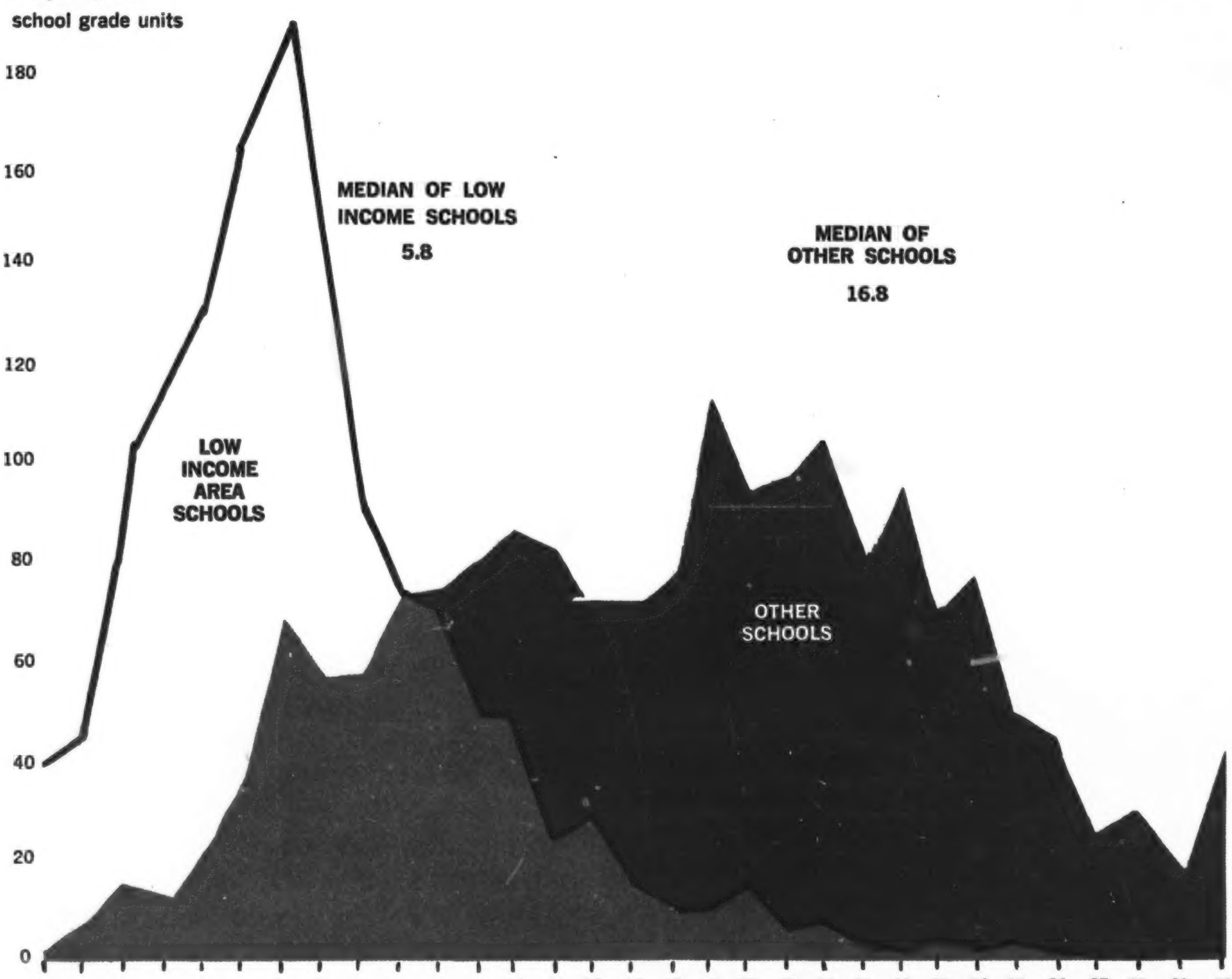


Figure 14

resulted in an overlap of scores, meaning many schools from both groups performed at the same level. Schools in a few low-income areas did better than the average of the other schools. And even the average low-income area school did better than some schools from the other group.

The wide variation in performance within each group of schools might be explained by a number of factors, including the quality of instruction and the variance in the economic levels of the pupils.

Dr. Dailey sees these trends: An increasing concentration of the poor in the big cities as affluent citizens move out; a movement of the poor into larger sections of the central cities; and a general decline of city test score averages.

An in-depth examination of scores for 3 or 4 years in one of the nine cities studied by Dr. Dailey tended to confirm this prophecy.

In this city (selected because it provided the most complete and representative data for several years) an "educational gap" appeared between the two economic groups of schools in every elementary and secondary grade for each of the 3 or 4 years encompassed in the analysis. The persistence of this gap was the most striking factor in Dr. Dailey's analysis.

Over the years, in all the grades, the low-income area schools were below the levels of the other schools. There was also a decrease over the years in the level of average student achievement for all grades in the city regardless of income-level area.

Other sources confirm this growing gap in educational achievement as poverty and racial isolation exert a growing influence on city school systems.

The New York City superintendent of schools described the 1967 achievement test reports as "the worst ever" in the schools' history. In Chicago it was reported that only 32 percent of the 6th-graders could read a 4th-grade book.

Poor Children, Poor Neighborhoods, Poor Schools

In the hearts of the big cities, the schools are often physical symbols of the neighborhood's decay. A third of Boston's schools are more than 100 years old. Half of the schools in Cleveland and a third in Washington are 50 years old.

In Baltimore there are 86 schools without gymnasiums, 30 without libraries, and 12 senior high schools without cafeterias.

The schools of the ghettos and slums usually fail to meet the standards of schools in better neighborhoods, offer less to the students in facilities and instruction, and find it hard to attract and hold qualified teachers.

These schools are the most often overcrowded and they experience a declining rate of academic achievement as the number of poorly prepared children in the pupil population grows.

Further complicating the situation is the increasingly difficult financial position of the cities. Industry and business as well as affluent residents are moving to the suburbs, causing the tax base to diminish. At the same time the influx of the poor creates a greater drain on budgets for social services and welfare.

In 1964, according to the U.S. Bureau of the Census, the average suburban pupil in the 37 largest urban areas received $124 more in public education than the average pupil in the inner cities.

"The Nation is devoting many more resources to educating its suburban children than city children," said a 1966 Carnegie Corporation study. "Or to put it another way, it is spending much more money to educate the children of the well-off than the children of the poor. And every shred of available evidence points to the conclusion that the educational needs of poor children are far greater than those of affluent children."

Cities are particularly limited in their taxing power by State law, yet typically, the States do not offer school funds to cities commensurate with their greater needs. Federal assistance, though directed to areas of greatest need, has not removed the disparity. The report of the National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders noted that Title I funds in Detroit, Newark, and New Haven were going to only about half of the children the cities considered eligible for Title I aid.

The superintendent of schools in Detroit estimated it would cost $13 million a year to bring his pupil-teacher ratio in line with the rest of his State. He told the Commission that 25 school boards in communities surrounding his city were spending an average of $500 more than Detroit to educate each of their children.

It can readily be seen that the present funding for compensatory education in these settings does not mean an adequate boost for children handicapped by circumstance. In cities such as these, Title I only brings educational equality a little closer for children who are still denied their fair share.

Title I's $1 billion is not large enough to match the extent of the problem. Large numbers of children and schools in need are still left out.

In Chicago, 113,000 children were reached by Title I, but 450,000 are in need of compensatory help. In Los Angeles, 59,000 children were served out of 300,000. In New Orleans, the figure was 51,000 out of 110,000.

To spread the money thinner would be to waste it. Each city, therefore, is forced to make hard decisions on priorities. In Oakland, Calif., as an example, 27 of the 88 schools in the city were identified as being in great need of compensatory education programs. However, Title I funds could only be extended to 15 schools.

Dr. Thomas MacCalla, Oakland's assistant superintendent of urban educational services, said that although the selection was based on measurable differences in test scores and economic levels, he found these differences to be insignificant in "human terms."

"We had to make a choice," he said. "Title I was just as needed in the schools that were left out. Now these schools are becoming constantly more critical. To shift the money would be to play the same game. Then the critical problems would be back in the schools that now have Title I."

Oakland got $2,500,000 in Title I money. It also gets compensatory education funds from the State of California—$290,000 in 1966-67 to reduce elementary class sizes and $200,000 for a junior high school program. The Title I target area is not conterminous with that of the State's program. Some schools get money from both sources, some from only one, and some from neither.

"We can see that where you spend the most money you get the best results," Dr. MacCalla said.

But money was not the only problem.

Some communities and school systems were not ready to administer compensatory education programs even when the means became available.

This point is made in the frank self-analysis in New Orleans' evaluation report.

The New Orleans evaluation contains a long list of the problems that fold one upon the other as a school enters the area of educating the disadvantaged poor:

The difficulty of recognizing the basic problems of the children; the lack of suitable diagnostic tests; staffs that are untrained and cannot be trained because there are no training programs in their regions; overcrowded schools that must use hallways, stair landings, and auditorium stages for remedial classes.

These problems, and more, were recognized as having inhibited the potentials of the programs. Eventually, these problems—common to many cities—will be overcome. Meanwhile, as one New Orleans school pointed out, it is nearly pointless to expect reading achievement gains from remedial programs hampered by untrained teachers or makeshift classrooms.

Segregation

The purpose of Title I and its effectiveness are openly challenged by racial discrimination and the school and community segregation that result from it.

Racial or ethnic discrimination and economic deprivation in the cities go hand-in-hand, whether the victims are Negroes, Puerto Ricans, or Mexican-Americans. Housing codes and real estate practices lock these victims into the ghetto, where the quality of community services, including the schools, is almost uniformly low. Title I programs are victimized by segregation just as are all other types of educational and social services.

There is no basis for putting forth desegregation or compensatory education as a single, concentrated means of attacking the problem of city education.

Desegregation efforts cannot be permitted to diminish. Elimination of school segregation is a national goal: Mandated by law, recognized as a moral commitment, acknowledged to be a basic necessity in the quest for equality of education.

At the same time, the plight of the schools and the cities makes compensatory education programs equally necessary, despite the obstacles.

Communities which expect schools to get on with the business of compensatory education have the obligation to themselves to comply with the duty to eliminate segregation, including de facto segregation, in those schools, and discrimination in employment and housing.

Perhaps the most perplexing task of compensatory education is that of convincing slum children that education is worthwhile. The slum child sees little evidence that academic study will change his life opportunities, his place of residence, or his income.

Schools extol abstract values of education, but people on a subsistence level cannot afford the luxury of learning for its own sake. Slum schools cannot offer believable evidence of the practical value of education because the slum community openly contradicts this idea.

The question: "What good is education?" must be answered by the community. If one adult Negro with an education—an older brother, for example—can get a good job in terms of salary and self-esteem, he becomes a powerful influence on young brothers and sisters still in school. On the other hand, if he is forced into a menial job offering neither immediate satisfaction nor long-range promise, he may become a strong negative influence, impelling his sisters and his brothers to drop out for low-level jobs to lighten the strain on the family income.

It is easy to see how society can provide models and influences to motivate young children. Surely the schools have a role to play in this endeavor, too, but it is impossible to believe they can do so without the community's help. The Equal Educational Opportunities Survey published in 1966 underscored this argument, saying that schools bring little influence to bear on a child's achievement that is independent of his background and the general social context in which he lives.

The progress of Title I must be measured against vexing troubles of contemporary city life as well as by the results of academic tests. Furthermore, until drastic social changes occur, these community factors will continue to affect test scores adversely.

Academic Progress

Despite the incontrovertibly bleak facts about the cities and their schools, there is evidence of academic progress by Title I pupils.

In the perspective of the national problem, however, the extent of the gains is no cause for satisfaction.

To stress progress would be to give artificial hope to those people who still think, as most people thought until recently, that the effects of generations of neglect can be erased quickly and by easily discoverable means.

Startling and heartwarming stories of individual achievement by ghetto boys and girls appear regularly in newspapers around the country. These are honest accounts, endorsed by experienced classroom teachers who observe and accurately assess the improvements of their children. The stories are encouraging and strengthen our beliefs that education works.

Similarly, individual Title I projects, some citywide in scope, can demonstrate substantial academic gains of children made in compensatory education courses. Valuable as the achievement of one girl in Youngstown, Ohio, may be, however, the national effort cannot be weighed one child at a time. There are thousands of such girls, but there are tens of thousand who have not received help.

Title I is contributing to the evolution of social conditions in a great number of areas, but it cannot realistically be expected to assume the responsibility or the financial support for programs to alleviate every condition which interferes with a child's growth.

To the question: "Is Title I having an impact on children?" the answer is: "Yes." But without serious and swift community change, today's disadvantaged children will grow up to be another wasted generation.

IV

TITLE I IN ACTION

Educational programs for deprived children and the teachers of those children will in fact form the vanguard of reform in the education of all children and teachers.

Stephen J. Fisher, Assistant Director
of Programs in Teaching,
Graduate School of Education,
Harvard University

American education is changing. The concepts of the teacher, of the school, of the school day, week, and year, and the question of who should be educated—all are under scrutiny. So is the learning process.

Title I is playing a major role in this examination. It has itself become an element of change. Title I teachers do not simply teach. They diagnose learning problems and tailor instruction to meet the children's needs. Aides ease the teaching load and make individual instruction more accessible. Classes are moving out of the classroom. They are being held in laboratories, museums, concert halls, theaters, even on the sidewalks of the slums. The school day, week, and year are growing longer and more meaningful.

Because of Title I, thousands of children who had dropped out of school are returning. Many others who never entered a regular classroom are being discovered and brought in.

Much of the credit for these changes must go to the deprived children and their parents. Dr. Ernest O. Melby, professor of education at Michigan State University, has credited the deprived child with making "a vital gift to the progress of education. He is . . . a mirror held up to our own schools and communities in which we can see our shortcomings. . . ."

THE CHANGING ROLE OF THE TEACHER

A teacher is one who imparts knowledge. He or she is the parent, the classroom instructor, the child's friend, the neighbor, the storekeeper, the student tutor from a higher grade—everyone in the child's environment.

Educators have realized this for years. But until the enactment of Title I, they were not able to bring much of this outside environment into the classroom.

Title I has put parents in classrooms as volunteers or paid teacher aides. It has brought in the neighborhood butcher, the community banker, and the corner druggist to explain their occupations to elementary school children. It has put student tutors to work aiding younger children.

These outside forces assist the child in relating his school experiences to reality. They also help ease the severe teacher shortage by increasing the number of adults per pupil in the classroom.

Although 90,000 school aides and 187,000 teachers worked in Title I programs in 1966-67, there was still a dearth of skilled instructors to teach the educationally disadvantaged. The need to give poor children more individual attention persisted, as did the need to acquaint teachers with the problems and frustrations of the child of poverty. Most of the 16,000 school systems participating in Title I used their share of its funds to set up special inservice training programs to help teachers understand the deprived child and use the techniques being developed to help him.

Recruiting Teachers

School systems used Title I funds to attract more teachers and teaching specialists such as those in remedial reading, guidance, and counseling.

Personnel vacancies were publicized through health and welfare departments, the Community Action Program of the Office of Economic Opportunity, and other agencies.

Former employees of Head Start programs were contacted personally; Neighborhood Youth Corps youngsters and foster grandparents filled nonprofessional positions in the schools. Some school districts sought qualified persons among minority groups and, in the case of aides, among the economically disadvantaged.

In New York City, teachers were recruited through the Intensive Teacher Training Program (ITTP)—a joint project of the City University of New York and the New York City Board of Education. College graduates lacking education credits required for licenses pursued an intensive study program during the summer of 1966. A seminar in problems of teaching and a special orientation course were conducted in the fall while the participants were full-time teachers. College costs were paid by the Board of Education. Of the 1,858 who completed the summer course, 1,583 were still full-time teachers in May 1967. Seventy-three percent were rated as average or above as compared with other new teachers. Most important, the ITTP program met 52 percent of the anticipated teacher need.

In many places temporary teacher certification was extended to college students if they fulfilled certain academic requirements during the summer. College and high school students served as tutors in some Title I schools.

A school district in Wisconsin, badly in need of diagnostic and remedial help for 125 high school students, developed a program that involved the staff of the psychoeducational clinic of a nearby university.

Pupil tutors were used in rural Worcester County, Md., where there were only three instrumental music teachers available for an afterschool Title I music program. Ten young musicians, recruited from high school bands, assisted the music teachers. These student tutors "proved an unequaled success, working with skill and dedication and, no doubt, providing 'role models' for the aspiring musicians as well," said Maryland education officials. "Several have found the experience so rewarding that they have elected to continue their studies with the intention of becoming teachers."

Teacher Attitudes

The problem of providing both willing and competent teachers for disadvantaged children is acute, according to the 1966 report on *Equality of Educational Opportunity* by James S. Coleman et al. The report revealed most teachers, Negro and white, prefer not to teach in schools that are predominantly nonwhite; most future teachers prefer to teach high ability students in academic schools; white students training for a teaching career are better prepared academically than Negroes; and there are substantial differences between Negro and white teachers in verbal competence.

This means that disadvantaged Negro children will be taught by teachers who, generally speaking, are less qualified and less willing than teachers who teach more advantaged children. Because of these problems, additional training is required for those who teach in Title I schools.

The teachers must learn all there is to know about the disadvantaged child—his needs, his problems. They must believe that the disadvantaged child is teachable, that he can learn as well as more advantaged children.

Project SEAR, a report on the impact of compensatory education on some poverty districts in California, discovered that the poor attitudes and prejudices displayed by some teachers toward their students hampered student achievement. The teachers did not understand the problems facing their students, and the lack of communication resulted, in part, in the failure of the schools to influence the pupils.

Another study, funded by the Office of Education and conducted by Arizona State University, revealed the positive impact of inservice training on teacher attitudes (see Appendix A—Teacher Attitudes). This was also found in a similar study in Buffalo.

Teacher Training

A trained staff aware of the special needs of disadvantaged children is the first prerequisite to success in Title I programs.

A survey of the 10 major institutions that certify public school teachers showed that only 3 percent of the 15,000 teachers graduating in 1966 had received orientation in teaching disadvantaged children. Yet an estimated 40 percent of all the children in the Nation's schools required compensatory education and needed special help in school, according to a 1967 Yeshiva University report to the Civil Rights Commission.

Inservice training programs are only beginning to face this. In reviewing such programs in America's big cities, one finds that most school systems do provide inservice training programs and that a large number of these are heavily supported by Title I. But, most of the programs fail to recognize the need for helping teachers work with disadvantaged children in ways which differ from those in middle-class schools. More training programs must be developed which give teachers an understanding of the deprived child's social and emotional needs, and help teachers become responsive to these needs.

One of these needs is to improve the poor self-image which disadvantaged children bring to school. Another is to alter the attitudes of teachers which reinforce their pupils' poor self-concept. Teachers' expectations are like self-fufilling prophecies. Children will achieve what is expected of them. This was borne out by a study made in San Francisco by Prof. Robert Rosenthal of Harvard University. He told teachers that certain of their pupils had a high learning potential, even though some did not. The result was higher teacher expectation and higher pupil achievement at the end of the school year.

Several school systems have inservice training programs which address themselves to the particular problems of teaching disadvantaged children.

In Detroit, the FAST program has included workshops which are designing special instructional materials and ways of working with disadvantaged children; a 6-month internship training for candidates for administrative positions in urban schools; regional workshops for counselors of disadvantaged children in senior and junior high schools; community relations workshops for secretarial personnel in schools serving disadvantaged neighborhoods; special training for persons eligible to become inner city principals; and workshops to explore attitudes of staff members toward students and their communities.

Seattle's project "Understanding the Disadvantaged Child" prepared suburban teachers to work with inner city children who were being transferred to outlying schools. Each of the teacher participants attended a 1-day orientation session and then moved into inner city schools for 5 days to teach with a specific teacher. Afterwards, the teachers returned to their home schools ready to receive disadvantaged children from the inner city.

In San Diego, courses, workshops, and conferences were conducted for school personnel to analyze problems of the disadvantaged child, to suggest practical ways of dealing with these problems, and to develop and share techniques and material in teaching such children. Workshops have been provided for aides, school clerks, and bus matrons as well as for principals and teachers. A television series on "the culture of poverty," each viewing followed by a discussion session, was considered particularly successful. Colleges, universities, and other groups cooperated.

Sacramento's summer inservice training institute on compensatory education dealt with the problems of teacher attitudes and skills. About 150 teachers and administrators each received $50 a week to attend the 5-week institute. They heard lectures on both the environment of disadvantaged children and on ways to teach them. Lecture titles included: "The Mexican-American," "Any Child Can Learn," "Characteristics of Children from the Culture of Poverty," "Science and the Compensatory Education Child," and "Mathematics in the Compensatory Education School."

Of all the projects containing an inservice component, reading received the most widespread attention. To meet the heavy need for reading teachers, the Board of Education in Providence teamed up with the University of Rhode Island to develop reading specialists for disadvantaged children in grades 1-12. Fifty-four Providence teachers enrolled in a basic course in the teaching of reading, another in the diagnosis and remediation of reading disabilities. To combine theory and practice, project teachers worked with poor readers and attended demonstration sessions using new equipment and materials. This program started in the spring of 1966. As of March 1968, about 36 persons had become remedial reading teachers and were providing small group instruction in Providence's reading centers and laboratories.

Tacoma, Wash., public schools are working with the University of Puget Sound to train prospective teachers in compensatory education while helping with inservice training.

Similar cooperative programs are taking place in Pasadena with Los Angeles State College, in Cleveland with Ursaline College, and in

Chicago with five Illinois colleges. And there are many more.

Attempts to instill in teachers a sense of compassion for disadvantaged pupils need to be repeated all across the United States.

School Aides

Assignments for aides varied widely. Most frequently, aides helped prepare materials, worked with individual students and small groups, supervised class work and group games, corrected papers, and performed clerical duties. Many school districts also employed aides to work with reading specialists, community workers, nurses, counselors, librarians, and other specialized personnel. During 1966-67, there were 83,500 teacher aides and 6,100 library aides working in Title I programs.

Aides were most successful in projects where they and the classroom teachers received in-service training in the nature and purpose of compensatory education; where their duties were clearly defined; where bilingual aides were used in school with large numbers of non-English-speaking pupils; and when the aides came from the same poverty area as the children.

In 1966-67, California hired 4,300 aides for Title I programs.

Classroom aides give teachers more time to teach by freeing them from nonteaching chores. A 5-year study in 25 Michigan public schools showed that in a 2-year period during which aides were employed, teachers spent much less time on routine tasks. Correcting papers was reduced by 89 percent; enforcing discipline, 36 percent; taking attendance, 76 percent; preparing reports, 25 percent; supervising children moving between classes, 61 percent; and monitoring written lessons, 83 percent.

What did the teachers do with all that new-found time? They increased time spent on lesson preparation by 105 percent; recitation, 57 percent; preparation of homework assignments, 20 percent; and desk-to-desk coaching, 27 percent.

School districts that employ parents from the poverty areas as teacher aides are providing a host of benefits beyond aiding teachers and children. By bringing in parents who have little education or are hostile to the school, these districts are helping to:

- Draw closer school-community ties.
- Raise the parents' desire to learn.
- Give parents a new feeling of self-esteem.
- Show parents how to help their children take a new interest in school.
- Take mothers off the welfare rolls and place them on the tax rolls as employees of the school system.

A typical school district employing aides from the poverty area is Cupertino Union School District in California.

"It has been our experience that you learn by teaching," explained Cupertino School Superintendent Charles Knight.

The aide who is working in a school and working with children first of all learns the subject that she is helping to teach in the process of teaching.

She learns that the school is a warm place to be rather than one fraught with the suffering which she might have experienced as a child. The aide in observing the operation of school from the inside rather than as a student would lose her fear of the institution. It has been our experience that she would then take back to her own children or her own brothers and sisters the message that school is not "bad," that the teachers really do care, that they are not in opposition to the poverty groups or different racial groups. This, I think, is the key.

Knight continued: "There are 2.5 million teachers in this country, so the potential use of aides is enormous. Our district alone could work with 750 aides."

Reaction to the employment of aides has been enthusiastic from all sides—teachers, children, parents, and the aides themselves.

Maryland officials said that the Prince Georges County classroom assistants have been designated as "children's aides," a title "meant to convey the role which this system has assigned to the new staff members."

The children's aide is a community resident who is in a training program designed and executed by Title I, helping teachers to give pupils extra help and attention in accordance with *needs diagnosed by the classroom teachers. Working under direct supervision of the teacher and responding to pupil needs recognized by the teacher, the aide has, nevertheless, a well defined status—a direct role in the educational process as a "helper of teachers."*

Maryland aides were oriented to the problems of disadvantaged children and given basic instruction in primary grade teaching and in the techniques and tools to be used in the new programs.

School aides are usually middle-class women with high school educations, and they perform only routine tasks. However, when aides upgrade their education, they assume tasks demanding higher skills.

Philadelphia places one or more coordinators (aides) in every elementary, secondary, and special school serving Title I children. The coordinator is the direct channel to the school neighborhood and belongs as much to it as to the school. There are 220 school community coordinators in Philadelphia, each carefully chosen from a 6-block distressed area and living in the community in which they serve. They are high school graduates and active in school or church and community affairs. Many are bilingual.

In Chicago, areas with the greatest concentration of economically disadvantaged children have been given a saturation of school aide services. Each Title I elementary school has been assigned an experienced teacher who functions as a human relations coordinator. Working closely with this coordinator are school-community representatives (aides) chosen locally by school staff and citizen advisory councils. These aides now number over 400, with one representative for every 700 children. As a result, officials report that parents have sought additional guidance for their children and have been willing to accept advice and assistance from school personnel.

New Orleans' teacher aide program furnished the disadvantaged community with new career opportunities for Title I high school graduates. The upgrading of skills, as a result of the training, enabled nonprofessionals to look forward to permanent employment in the school systems or in other agencies. Furthermore, the program enabled aides with some college training or a high school diploma to prepare for the teaching profession.

In Omaha, Nebr., 22 community aides brought home and school closer by seeking out parents who felt they did not speak the same language as school personnel. The community aides established a block organization in each Title I school area. A leader kept neighbors informed of programs and opportunities in the schools. The aides also worked closely with principals, teachers, and nurses.

In San Diego, male physical education students from local colleges serve as aides in preschool and early elementary grades.

In California, Florida, Texas, Louisiana, and other States, bilingual teacher aides assisted Title I classroom teachers in programs for Spanish-speaking or other non-English speaking children. In Maryland, for example, an aide assisted a Korean child who understood no English. After a year of tutoring the child was able to move up with his class. Bilingual aides provided similar assistance to teachers of American Indian children.

A number of school systems across the country recruit school aides through the Neighborhood Youth Corps—another example of how the disadvantaged can work in the schools.

In Kansas City, Mo., members of the Youth Corps helped put on dramatic productions in the school system serving Title I pupils. In New Orleans, corpsmen acted as clerical liaison between classrooms and principals' offices. The State of Washington reported Neighborhood Youth Corps provided assistance to both Title I teachers and librarians, served in mailrooms and as custodial aides, playground aides, audiovisual aides, cafeteria aides, and tutors. Corpsmen also worked as school aides in the Title I migrant programs.

Some school aides were recruited through Community Action Agencies (CAA). A Florida school for retarded children reported a successful joint Title I-CAA program using foster grandparents.

Training of aides took many forms—from orientation sessions of a few hours to formal preservice and inservice courses of several weeks. The Newark, N.J., Board of Education employed a private company to train school aides for Title I kindergarten and 1st-grade classes in public and nonpublic schools. The Newark program took the same approach in hiring aides as did Cupertino, Calif.

Both use the "New Careers" concept which stresses that the job be provided first and that training, upgrading, and added education be built in. In Newark it is possible to begin as a teacher's aide for $4,000 a year and, while obtaining courses on the job, in the evening, and during the summer, to rise within a short time to become an assistant teacher, then an emergency teacher (or associate teacher), and ultimately a fully licensed professional teacher in 5 to 6 years.

The Office of Economic Opportunity and the Bank Street College of Education in New York also trained aides in Title I schools. They financed and coordinated 15 demonstration training programs during 1966-67.

Berkeley schools, in cooperation with the University of California, conducted inservice training sessions for Title I teachers and aides. They met in small groups once a week for 2 hours at the end of the school day. In addition, teams consisting of a teacher and two aides met daily for 20 minutes both before and after school. Complete rapport between teacher and aide was one of the results of this project. A classroom observer noted: "Interaction between teacher and teacher aides appeared to be quite subtle; they seemed to understand the timing involved in the changing tasks and the need for movement of the children."

To help insure such interaction, the State of Kentucky has written teacher-teacher aide cooperation into its guidelines as a requirement.

THE CHANGING ROLE OF THE SCHOOL

A school can be anywhere and can operate at anytime. It can be a storefront, a church basement, an outdoor arena or a grassy knoll. It can be a theater, a museum, or a concert hall. It can hold classes any time—day and evening, weekends, and summers. Under Title I during 1966-67, it did.

When the need for preschool classrooms became imperative in Anne Arundel County, Md., 13 different facilities were converted. These included a rented church building, a portable trailer, a closed-down schoolhouse, a telephone exchange building, and a partitioned schoolroom.

Mobile classrooms, like the one used in Title I's Operation Fishnet on Martha's Vineyard, are another way school administrators have broken out of the traditional school structure. The island's four school districts, covering some 10 miles, leased a fully-equipped mobile science laboratory. (For details see the State Reports section.)

Summer programs that carry on the activities of the regular school year are becoming more and more common. So are Saturday and evening classes.

Field trips also broaden the scope of education. In many Title I schools, they are much more than a bus ride and picnic. They are carefully planned journeys designed to bring to life the printed word, the geography map, the history lesson. They stimulate conversation and arouse a child's occupational interests.

In Chicago, field trips reach Title I children through two different avenues. In the elementary schools, they increase his cultural background by exposing him to a series of stimulating experiences, such as art shows, stage plays, and historic tours. At the junior high level, the child is made more aware of his community—the world in which he lives and will later seek employment.

An entirely different approach to expanding the classroom was found in Topeka, Kans. The Title I Project Greenthumb involved a hundred 5th- and 6th-grade pupils, their brothers, sisters, and parents, in planting, tending, and harvesting a garden. The youngsters—and their "helpers"—then participated in lessons in preparing, freezing, and canning the food they produced.

In Cleveland, a residential camping project for upper elementary school children developed social relationships with teachers, strengthened student-teacher attitudes, and provided children of different races and cultures with an opportunity to live together and solve their common problems. Over 1,700 pupils and 58 teachers participated in two 8-week camp sessions in fall 1966 and spring 1967. Similar Title I projects were also tried in Newark and Trenton, N.J. Through them, teachers gained greater insights into the needs of Title I children.

Enrichment

"A living library" was established during the 1967 Title I summer program in Derby, Kans. The library consisted of plants, toads, snakes, turtles, spiders, lizards, and a collection of insects—all available on an overnight checkout basis. School officials said the living library spurred interest in plants and animals, and more books were circulated as a result.

Max Peter, an art teacher at the University of Idaho, conducted a Title I art class by telephone for eight rural high schools within a 65-mile radius of the university. The telephone hook-up permitted interchange of questions and answers. The 1966-67 school year was the first time most of these students had received instruction in art history and appreciation and basic design principles.

The Buffalo Philharmonic Orchestra and Young Audiences, Inc., presented special concerts for Title I children in inner-city schools during 1966-67. Similar programs with other orchestras and agencies took place in New York, Philadelphia, and San Francisco.

Many school systems took advantage of television facilities. Large school systems developed their own programs. Project Horizon in Buffalo was shown over WNED-TV—in school and at home—for Title I children ranging from 5 to 9. Its technique was to teach children through entertainment.

The Longer School Year

During 1966-67, Title I funds were spread more evenly throughout the year, and the number of summer projects decreased. Local school districts spent $68 million less on summer activities than in the previous year.

However, Title I summer classes played a major role in offering disadvantaged children extra help during 1966-67. Children from city ghettos gained at least 1 month's achievement for each month of instruction during the summer. They also made giant strides in improved attitudes and self concepts.

Classes were small and usually under the direction of the more creative teachers in the school. In nearly all cases, summer programs were held in an informal atmosphere; pupils

did not have to think about grades. Summer also afforded an opportunity for more field trips than in the fall, winter, or spring. And classes could be held outdoors and were—in Tiffin and Springfield, Ohio; Memphis, Tenn.; Garrett, Md.; and many other places.

A typical comment on the achievement of disadvantaged children during the summer months was reported by one school district in California:

The Stanford Reading Test was administered to high school students at the end of the summer session. The median gain was 4 months during the 3-month program, with the largest gains averaging 8 months, achieved by 10th grade students. More than one-fourth of the high school students scored gains ranging from 1 to 2 years during the 3-month period.

Sixty Chicago schools offered summer programs for educationally and culturally disadvantaged grade school pupils. Fifty-six of these programs were funded in part by Title I; 30 entirely by Title I. Use of the latest approaches and techniques enabled children of varied backgrounds and abilities to attain success. Children attended school from 9 a.m. to 2 p.m. for 8 weeks. Classes were limited to 25 pupils. Each elementary school served 600 pupils in grades 1 through 6 and included public and nonpublic school children. Metropolitan Achievement Tests were administered at the end of the 1st week and at the end of the 7th week. Normal expected gains for 6 weeks would be 1.5 months. Mean gains in reading actually achieved were: 3.4 months in grades 1 through 3, and 5.6 months in grades 4 through 6. Mean gains in arithmetic problem solving were: 3.5 months in grades 1 through 3, and 5 months in grades 4 through 6.

North Carolina reported that "during the summer of 1967, almost 75 percent of the local education agencies had one or more Title I activities. Prior to Title I," officials said, "summer educational programs were not available to educationally deprived students in most local education agencies."

From Texas came the report that "summer school was an activity in 476 Title I school districts. Major activities were reading, math, physical education, recreation, health services, library services, and English language arts.

Both remedial and enrichment type activities were conducted, and many types of health services were also provided."

Most summer projects across the country stressed the importance of language development and the use of outdoor facilities, libraries, and field trips in programs coordinated with classroom activities.

The Changing School Day and Week

From one end of the country to the other, schools are open longer each day and on Saturdays. Title I funds financed many of the "after hours" projects.

But in the big cities, the longer school day does not always mean **more** education for children of the ghetto. In fact, most ghetto schools operate for additional hours because they must. Classroom overcrowding has forced many school districts to split the day—morning and afternoon sessions, each for different children.

There are, however, some areas like Kansas City, Mo.; Springfield, Ohio; Harford County, Md.; Philadelphia, Pa.; and Eastlake, Colo. where longer school days do result in more instruction time for the children.

Kansas City conducted a variety of Title I activities on weekends and before and after regular school hours. The program included a Saturday college orientation for underachieving high school students from poverty areas; Saturday art studios for 30 high school students; a Saturday swim session; a Saturday girls physical education program; afterschool sports and recreation; afterschool science and a natural science camp center; afterschool playground projects that stressed desirable social behavior; and a Saturday industrial arts and crafts program.

In Springfield, Ohio, the Title I project centered around two basic plans—an elementary enrichment program and a community center program focused on 225 children in grades 1 through 6. Each day 170 deprived pupils were given breakfast. Several days a week they participated in an afterschool program which included a snack, reading, arts and crafts, and physical fitness. The children also received the services and care of social workers, aides, nurses, counselors, physicians, and dentists.

Under the Title I community center program, three buildings remained open three evenings a week to serve approximately 580 selected elementary and secondary school students. The centers provided quiet study areas, tutoring , and organized physical fitness and recreational activities.

In Harford County, Md., an elementary school library opened early and closed late. A new learning center was set up in storage space adjoining the library. There, children viewed educational filmstrips on individual projectors or grouped around a listening center, and heard lessons in phonetics that were taped by the system's new reading specialist. Small groups of children who needed special instruction assembled after school 3 days a week to learn speech sounds recorded on tape. Each child's program was tailored to his own needs.

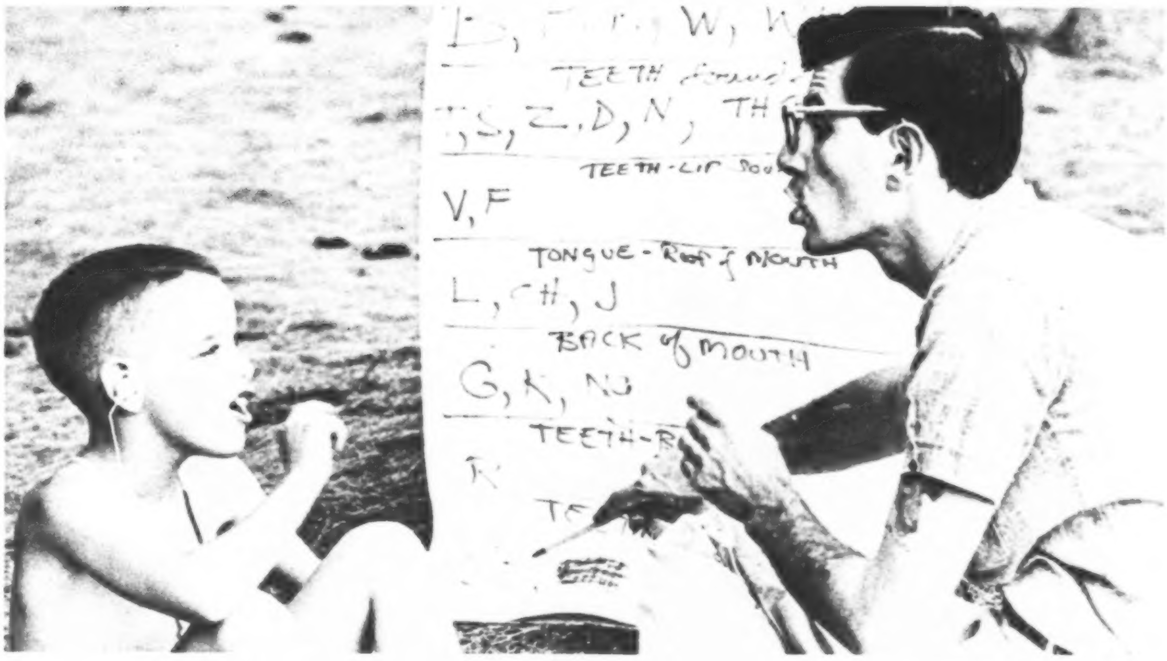
In Eastlake, Colo., 1,103 secondary school pupils who needed help in English, social studies, and mathematics were referred to tutors by Title I teacher-counselors. Tutoring was provided for 7th- through 12th-graders by 230 teachers before school, after school, and on Saturdays. This help was given at school, at home, and, in some instances, in public housing developments.

The San Diego, Calif., schools offered Saturday morning instruction in science, oral language, and art for above-average Title I 6th graders. Classes were limited to 15 students. Each group had one teacher and a teacher aide. Joint study-field trips involving several classes were part of the program.

WHO SHALL BE EDUCATED

In recent years, educators have begun to reconsider who should be educated in the public schools. Title I has made a heavy impact in changing this concept.

The classroom is no longer the domain only of 6 to 17-year-olds who present themselves to be educated. Efforts are underway to reach the very young, the parents, and those who dropped out of school before completing high school. More attention is also being paid to the child from an impoverished home who attends a nonpublic school. And more emphasis is being placed on helping the child who cannot speak English.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The offspring of migrant parents, the Indian child, the physically and emotionally handicapped child, and the institutionalized child are also getting more attention than ever before.

Preschool Children

Evidence shows that if the effects of environmental deprivation are to be overcome, it is essential to provide disadvantaged children with enrichment experiences while they are still very young.

"It is possible to say that, in terms of intelligence measured at age 17, at least 20 percent is developed by age 1, and 50 percent by age 4," Dr. Benjamin Bloom of the University of Chicago reports.

To reach the disadvantaged child, Title I preschool programs are being widely expanded. In Texas, over 250 local school districts ran preschool programs for nearly 22,700 children in 1966-67. More than 50 programs focused on English as a second language.

In Kansas, kindergarten has been part of the State grade structure but it was optional for local districts. Last year, 44 districts in Kansas began Title I kindergarten programs.

Arizona and Idaho reported that Title I preschool programs have demonstrated the value of early childhood education. Their success may well lead to statewide support of kindergarten programs.

A Vermont school superintendent described the impact that Title I preschool education has had on his district in these words:

> *One outgrowth in Title I has been the realization of the importance of prevention of learning problems and early recognition of those that may exist. Thinking of this type has led to the development of a cooperative kindergarten for our five-town district. Parents of this cooperative are now pushing hard to sell public kindergartens to the taxpayers so that all children can realize the advantages their children had.*

Arkansas is also moving rapidly into early childhood education. The Governor's Council on Childhood Development is planning a program for children from birth to 9 years of age. In November 1968 a referendum will be voted upon to remove the constitutional restriction on the age groups which can be legally educated in the public schools.

Typical preschool programs in the country stress language development and readiness activities, with health, nutrition, psychological, and social work services also provided. Parental involvement—through home visits, parent education classes, conferences, field trips, and the employment of parents as professional aides or volunteers—is emphasized.

In Denver, Colo., the Child Development Activity, jointly funded by Title I and the Office of Economic Opportunity (OEO), was especially successful. The program was conducted in 18 centers and served 682 prekindergarten children. Records indicate that 524 parents came to meetings for instruction, recreation, and other activities; 325 parents volunteered to help with playground supervision, babysitting, trips and excursions, and lunchroom duties; and 350 families received the services of social workers during the regular school year.

With a long-range view of permanent preschool programs, Chattanooga, Tenn., has started a Title I child development program for 320 children. Both the child development centers and the home were organizational bases for learning. Children 3, 4, and 5 years of age spend several days a week at the eight centers working in small groups. During the remainder of the week guided home activity supplemented the work done at the centers in developing the child's educational readiness. To measure the long-range objectives, the children will be evaluated annually until they complete grade 6. Also funded in the evaluation will be teacher training, physical facilities, parent involvement, and learning activities.

To avoid duplication of effort and to expand program benefits to more children, school districts and CAA officials often coordinated Title I and Project Head Start programs. A number of States reported that Head Start children attended classes in Title I schools, that transportation costs and materials were frequently shared, and that the CAA helped identify children for Title I preschool programs.

A head start, however, may not be enough. The New York City followup study of kindergarten children who participated in Title I preschool programs revealed that gains dissipate once the children reach primary school, unless continued special attention and services are provided. If the preprimary experiences are to be consolidated and if the effects of cumulative deprivation are to be completely counteracted, follow-through programs in the early grades are essential.

Dropouts

To hold its students and reclaim those who have dropped out, a school must offer programs that are both relevant and practical. To meet this end, many Title I programs are designed to improve attitudes toward self and society, to teach marketable skills, and to provide on-the-job training in the world of work. Approaches include:

(1) *SPECIAL CLASSES:* Under Title I, Lincoln High School in St. Louis offers a complete reeducation and reorientation program for high school students who cannot adjust to a regular high school environment. Its nongraded curriculum concentrates on basic subjects and individual attention. Preparation for employment is highlighted. Students are encouraged to return to their regular school if at all possible.

Detroit's Job Upgrading program offers high school dropouts individual counseling, remedial classes, and training to upgrade employability. Students enroll on a volunteer basis.

The Community School of Providence, R.I., provides afternoon and evening courses for dropouts. More than 95 dropouts have received high school equivalency certificates. Motivated by successful completion of one program, many of these have continued their educational pursuits beyond high school.

Using Title I funds to increase school holding power, St. Martin's Parish, La., has developed a vocational-academic program. High school students take 2 hours of vocational training in industrial arts each day, and 3 hours of specially designed academic work. Of the 3,722 students who participated in this program, only one failed to return to school for the 1967-68 academic year.

(2) *WORK STUDY PROGRAMS:* The Title I program in Skowhegan, Maine, provides on-the-job training for its students and involves the entire community in its efforts. High school juniors and seniors spend 3 hours in the morning working for local businesses. Job assignments are rotated to give each student a variety of experiences. In the afternoon, the students go to school, taking specially designed academic classes and job orientation courses.

Nonpublic School Children

In the past few years, the public has grown more aware of the presence and the needs of educationally deprived children in private schools. But while this awareness was growing, so was the great debate over public aid to nonpublic school children.

A few State legislatures, such as New York, Michigan, Ohio, and Connecticut, have enacted laws providing some services to nonpublic school children. These include free lunches, books, and other auxiliary services. Many other legislatures have bills for nonpublic school children under consideration.

Some other positive things are taking place and cooperation between public and nonpublic school administrators is improving to the benefit of both public and private systems.

In Baltimore, Md., a Catholic nun who is an expert in the teaching of reading, helped plan the city's public school reading program. Similar situations have occurred in Michigan, Wisconsin, New Mexico, and other States.

An example of joint planning may be seen in New Haven, Conn., where public school district officials, and principals and faculty members of ten parochial schools meet regularly. As a result, New Haven implemented an intensive reading instruction program with certified teachers, tutorial help, and counseling for educationally deprived children in parochial schools. As James Sullivan, supervisor of parochial schools' special services, noted: "This harmony (between public and private schools) has contributed considerably to the effectiveness of these services."

A major reason for the improved cooperation was the recognition by some public and nonpublic schoolmen for the need to set up formal procedures to encourage involvement. Effective methods included: The dissemination of Title I literature to nonpublic school officials, nonpublic representation at Title I conferences and on State advisory boards, visits by State officials to parochial schools, and the establishment of liaison workers between the State education agency and the nonpublic schools. California ran a workshop to acquaint public and nonpublic school administrators with ways to involve nonpublic school pupils in Title I. New York devoted an issue of its State Education Department's Title I bulletin to *Guidelines for Participation by Children Enrolled in Private Schools.*

Many nonpublic school administrators also took the initiative to insure smooth development of Title I projects involving nonpublic school children. They named persons to work with State and local personnel. The superintendent of parochial schools in Rhode Island, for instance, freed specialists to work on planning Title I projects. In California, Catholic schools had a Statewide Title I coordinator working with the State's Office of Compensatory Education.

In many States, participation of nonpublic school children in Title I programs was limited because of State and local laws prohibiting dual enrollment and shared services. The failure of local school districts to involve nonpublic school officials sufficiently in the planning and evaluation of projects was also a major source of friction in 1966-67. Nonpublic school officials reported that too often those responsible for planning in local districts failed to consider the needs of nonpublic school children. Moreover, the Boston College (BC) study on public and nonpublic school relations (see Appendix A) revealed that the complexity of parochial systems with their divisions of authority and their different school boundary lines threw roadblocks in the way of smooth planning and project operations.

The BC study and State and local evaluation reports indicated that nonpublic school officials must share the responsibility for the lack of deprived pupil participation. Some nonpublic school officials apparently did not want their children to participate in Title I, especially on public school grounds, and were reluctant to accept staff from the public schools. Still other nonpublic school officials were charged with making excessive demands for funds and services. In most cases, however, the States reported good relationships existed although there was still much room for improvement.

A comparison of statistics for the school years 1965-66 and 1966-67 shows a sharp decline in the number of nonpublic school children participating in Title I activities—a drop from 526,000 to 466,000 pupils. This decline is attributed to two factors. First, there were statistical errors in the reports of two large city school districts for 1965-66 which showed 40,000 more children than participated. Second, the decline in summer projects cut deeply into nonpublic school child participation because nonpublic school children are involved more heavily in summer projects than in any others.

Perhaps more important than the precise number of participants in Title I is the quality of their participation. This may, to some extent, be measured by the amount spent for the program. Expenditures rose nearly $5 million between 1965-66 and 1966-67. So, although fewer nonpublic school children participated, more money was spent on those who did. On a per child basis, expenditures rose from $57 the first year to $75 the second.

But despite the increase, too often the educational activities and services made available to nonpublic school children have not had the same intensity and quality as those offered to public school children. The BC study found that many projects were designed to take place at times and in locations that limited participation. Moreover, BC found that many projects provided services that bore little relationship to the special educational needs of deprived nonpublic school children. Many educators have reported similar findings.

To speed change, the Office of Education has clarified its criteria on the question of eligibility and the extent of desirable involvement for nonpublic school participants.

The Non-English Speaking Child

If there is no communication in the classroom there can be no learning. The child who does not speak English is automatically barred from receiving an education in most school systems in the United States.

The school has a double responsibility to this child. It must teach him to speak, write, and understand English. Without this knowledge he cannot compete successfully in our society. But schools cannot sacrifice the child's self-image and self-respect in the process. Whatever his background, the child has a cultural heritage of which he can and should be proud. The school must teach him English and help him adjust to American life, but not at the expense of wiping out his own heritage.

Unfortunately, many students who do not speak English face other difficulties. Many come from environments totally different from those of the other children in the school. Sometimes they have grown up in isolated communities—an Indian reservation or an Eskimo village. They may be migrants constantly traveling from one school district to another. Or, because their parents cannot speak English and have difficulty finding work, they may be forced to live in big city ghettos. Whatever the specific circumstances, these children enter school with a background as foreign to the classroom as the language they speak.

There are additional problems involved in any English as a second language program. The first is understanding the child when he first enters the school system. Bilingual aides are commonly employed with Title I funds for this purpose. The aide not only can act as an interpreter and help with instruction, but can also provide valuable insights into the needs and the problems of the child.

Sometimes a more formal orientation to school is needed. With Title I funds Alachua County, Fla., sends a small bus (equipped as a mobile classroom and operated by a social services specialist and teacher) into migrant camps. The bus and its staff provide preschool children with new learning experiences and health and social services. Thus, children and their parents—many of whom do not speak English—are introduced to the world of the school.

Involving parents in school's activities helps the child adjust to school. The State of California reports several Title I activities that bring parents into the school environment; among them are home visits, parent meetings, planned school programs for parents, and the use of special services of community agencies to improve liaison between home and school. One Southern California district sends parents a newsletter written in Spanish. It also holds meetings in Spanish to explain school activities.

Helping the child adjust to school is an important aspect of all English as a second language projects. Unfortunately, bilingual teachers are scarce, new curriculums and techniques are needed, and intensive inservice training is required.

Despite these difficulties, school districts report many promising Title I efforts. Arizona's Kayenta Elementary School has combined its classroom and physical education programs to teach English to Navajo-speaking 1st-graders. Classroom material correlating the English language with the Navajo language has been prepared, and selected English phrases have been worked into the physical education program as well as into the formal classes. As these phrases are carried back and forth from classroom to playground, the child learns to use and understand them.

Norwalk, Conn., serves children representing over 20 nationalities in its school system. During fiscal year 1967, about 320 of these children received daily instruction at an orientation center equipped with a 20-station language laboratory. The staff received inservice training at a summer workshop, and a special curriculum was prepared. Staff-prepared tests found and classified difficulties, and measured student achievement. As soon as each student was able to communicate adequately in English, he was moved into a regular classroom.

Other districts provide special classes within the school during the regular school day. In California, for example, the average English as a second language class lasts about 45 minutes. It is taught by a bilingual teacher with a bilingual aide.

Often the child who does not speak English does not speak his own language properly. Instructing him in both languages preserves his own language and cultural heritage, and at the same time equips him to live in an English-speaking society. He learns to accept a new language and environment without sacrificing the old one. Bilingual education also offers a rare opportunity to the English-speaking child. He learns a new language at the time it is easiest to learn, and he becomes familiar with a literature and history different from his own.

Having non-English-speaking students in the school thus becomes an asset to all the pupils. The Harlandale Independent School District of San Antonio, Tex., provided instruction in both English and Spanish in one 1st-grade section in each of four elementary schools. At the end of the 1st grade, three of the four schools reported that the bilingual sections could speak, read, and write in two languages.

Parents

Educators cannot plan the education of a child without help from parents. Parents must have confidence in the methods and be involved in every aspect of Title I from project planning to project evaluation.

Despite demands for improved education programs and the publicity surrounding compensatory education, there has been too little communication between local school boards and parents. Many parents do not understand the goals of compensatory education or the programs which implement it in their children's schools. This was a major finding of Project SEAR. Parents, the report said, must be better informed of specific school programs and of the complexity of compensatory education in general.

But before parents can be made fully aware of the educational problems of their children—and what the schools are doing to correct them—educators must, in turn, be aware of the attitudes of the parents. A study conducted with Title I funds by the Chicago Board of Education pointed up this fact, and then proceeded to find out exactly who the parents of disadvantaged children were and how they felt about their children's activities in school.

Trained interviewers gathered information from 632 of the 800 families who lived in a low-income public housing project and whose children attended the John Farren Elementary School. Data included: The annual income of parents, their employment status, and their educational background as well as their current involvement in school activities and attitudes toward their children's progress in school.

The researchers discovered that 315 parents did not know whether their children had homework; 369 did not help their children with

homework; 161 had not given their children's progress in school any thought; and 105 did not know how their children felt toward school.

However, the parents indicated a willingness to participate in the Title I program as teacher aides, school-community representatives, tutors, core group teachers, and as students in improving their own basic education.

During the 1966-67 school year, local school districts encouraged parental involvement in a variety of ways. Community aides and social workers visited homes to inform parents of their children's needs, to explain the Title I program, and to urge their active participation. Conferences were held in the schools, thus giving parents an opportunity to discuss their children's progress with teachers and other staff personnel.

When parents in Baltimore did not respond to written notices and did not appear at interviews scheduled in connection with a Title I activity, school staff members conducted a door-to-door campaign to tell them of the benefits of the project. In some cases, parents were provided with free transportation for school conferences.

In San Diego, trained parent-counselors worked with teachers and the regular guidance staff in implementing a parent-counseling project in seven schools. To complement the usual home visitations and school conferences, the Title I staff invited parents to observe classroom activities and to accompany their children—secondary school students—on field trips. Meetings with parents concentrated on reading, study habits, and careers. In an effort to involve non-English-speaking parents, some of the conferences were conducted in Spanish, with parents and other members of the bilingual community serving as discussion leaders.

Parents served as teacher aides, clerical aides, school-community assistants, and volunteer chaperones on trips. An increasing number of school districts—New York, Cincinnati, and Los Angeles, for example—include parents in their evaluations of Title I projects, soliciting comments on interviews and on questionnaires.

Local school districts have also recognized the importance of involving parents at the outset of their children's formal schooling. In Harwinton, Conn., about 20 of the entering youngsters come from families which cannot afford books. The school librarian brings new books to each family every 2 weeks and encourages mothers to read to their children each day.

Some school districts implemented education projects to show parents how to help their children. In one of Chicago's poorest areas, four child-parent education centers were established, each consisting of six interconnected mobile units. One unit in each center, equipped with homemaking equipment and staffed by a professional home arts teacher, serves exclusively for parent education programs. Parents participate in program planning, pupil health examinations, class observation, teacher conferences, cooking lessons, and other home economics courses. During the year, parents requested meetings with teachers to learn how to read stories to their children. Some parents visited the centers several times a week to read to small groups of pupils.

NEW DIRECTIONS

Innovations in teaching methods and materials and new insights into learning handicaps of poor children have already spread from slum schools to the best schools in the Nation's suburbs. And many educators are convinced that this is just the beginning of the new trend.

This stage will continue even as progress becomes visible and projects demonstrate undeniable merit. The field of exploration is new, and the newness is multiplied by the thousands of communities which must work out their best solutions.

At present there is some agreement on types of needs that must be met—careful diagnoses of individual academic failures to determine if a physical impairment such as brain damage or a vision defect is present; concentrated compensatory education focused on basic skills, such as reading and arithmetic; attention to a pupil's sense of personal worth, racial integration, year-round schools, and preschool classes.

There is recognition that schools must assume responsibility to overcome disrupting outside influences—to fill the vacuum in a child's life caused by social and cultural isolation; to replace subcultural influences which hamper a child's development; and to instill pride and identity by recognizing and teaching him the values of his background.

There is agreement that home and community environments should not combat learning and that schools must interest parents in the education of their children.

But to state the needs is only to raise the problems. How to solve them has not been answered, nor has it been determined exactly what educational and social services can accomplish such complex goals as changing attitudes.

There is no reason to believe that all of the approaches and methods being tried today will ultimately prevail. But out of the activity, prototypes of success are developing. The presence of large numbers of disadvantaged children in our schools, the demands of increasingly impatient communities, and the requirements of a society which has little need for those who are unskilled or undereducated demand that we apply the best that is currently available even as we seek to improve.

The availability of Federal funds has overcome the traditional timidity of administrators. Researchers are now in the classrooms. New ideas are being tried. Some show promise of success. For example:

INFANT EDUCATION: There is much evidence that experiences of early childhood can irreversibly affect intellectual growth. The recent discovery that experiences of the early years make a difference of 20 to 40 IQ points later in life has shaken the popular belief that the intellect develops in stages to its full capacity which is fixed at birth. Psychologists know that the growth of a child's mind can be severely hampered by a repressive and restricted environment. It is important that planned educational experiences be introduced well before a child arrives at school. The cradle is not too early. Head Start programs may be too late.

Dr. Robert Schaefer of the National Institute of Mental Health discovered this in an ongoing study and recommends that disadvantaged children receive verbal stimulation through home tutoring beginning at age 1.

Dr. Schaefer and Msgr. Paul H. Furfey of the Catholic University of America have developed a project to raise the intellectual ability of Negro infants from low-income families. From the time they are 15 months until they reach age 3, these children receive home tutoring, 1 hour a day, 5 days a week. The emphasis is on verbal stimulation. The children are encouraged to talk, play with educational toys, and look at picture books. Preliminary results indicate that mental growth during this period is closely related to the amount of intellectual stimulation the child receives.

A 4-year nursery school project in the Boston slums, supported by Boston and Brandeis Universities and Simmons College, showed that remediation is already necessary by age 2. In September 1968, Dr. David Weikart, director of special education in the Ypsilanti (Mich.) schools, will begin a 2-year study in which teachers will work in deprived homes, chiefly with mothers. The teachers will show the mothers how to stimulate their 3- to 12-month-old children intellectually.

RACIALLY INTEGRATED COMPENSATORY EDUCATION: A child's success or failure in school is heavily influenced by his classmates. He learns as much, or more, from them as from his teachers. His feelings about his future are diminished in a segregated school. Several studies have shown that the children of minority groups learn more in an integrated setting. For example, Hartford, Conn., is transporting groups of inner-city children to suburban middle-class schools. Preliminary findings of this 2-year study show that racially integrated compensatory education is needed but is not enough for the educationally deprived. The evidence shows that the greatest gains are made by bussed children who also receive a saturation of services. This was found in kindergarten through grade 5.

CONCENTRATED EFFORT (Critical Mass): This concept calls for focusing all those human and material resources needed to produce major improvement in pupil achievement. It suggests that any amount of resources short of the "critical mass" will fail to produce measurable change. It further suggests the need for schools to focus on specific problems—remedial reading, for example, so that when they demonstrate success, the techniques can be used to help more children.

Charles Benson of the University of California cites small class size, a pupil-teacher ratio of 5 to 1 or less, extensive diagnostic services to identify learning problems, and many types of instructional aids to learning as the factors associated with successful Title I programs.

When services to disadvantaged children are spread thin, the rate of achievement drops. An analysis of the Demonstration Guidance Project which expanded in New York City into the Higher Horizons Program found that the achievement of culturally disadvantaged children can be improved markedly with intense concentration of school services, but that improvement is less likely when services are less concentrated.

The Philadelphia School System also reported a sharp drop in the learning rate of disadvantaged pupils after its Educational Improvement Program was expanded to serve more pupils without a commensurate increase in services. This was also evident in the "Rooms of 20" remedial reading program in St. Louis and the "saturation services" program in San Francisco.

IMPROVING SELF-CONCEPTS: There is a strong relationship between a positive self-image and academic success. The dramatic study by Prof. Robert Rosenthal of Harvard University, cited earlier, shows that pupil motivation is directly affected by teacher attitude. The Banneker Project in St. Louis appealed directly to the sense of pride and competitive spirit of pupils. It concentrated on changing attitudes of teachers and parents concerning pupil learning potential. There was solid evidence after several years that children became more interested in school, were better behaved, and had better attendance records. It also was reported that teachers were more enthusiastic about their work and that parent cooperation was vastly improved.

Many State and local Title I evaluation reports cite improved pupil attitudes and behavior resulting from programs and services. Programs for pregnant unmarried teenage girls are improving self images in Baltimore, San Francisco, Detroit, Chicago, Washington, D.C., Buffalo, New York, and Boston. Dropout prevention programs such as School To Aid Youth (STAY) in Washington, D.C., are also proving a success by building positive feelings of self-worth. Other reports showed that children gain pride in their heritage through curriculum projects focused on the contributions and accomplishments of their ethnic and racial origins.

Pupil transfer programs such as those in Kansas City, Mo., Rochester, N.Y., and Boston show increased attendance of the minority-group children because of more positive attitudes toward education brought about by additional attention and services they receive in and out of the classroom.

YEAR-ROUND SCHOOL: The anachronistic summer layoff from school works to the detriment of the disadvantaged child. San Francisco reported a summer decline in reading ability among pupils. The evaluation report by the Stanford Research Institute emphasizes that "a year-round program of moderate intensity is superior to a more intensive 9-month program followed by a 3-month recess." Reinforcing this is the Center for Urban Education evaluation of the More Effective Schools Program in New York City, where the paradox of normal progress with increasing retrogression was found. A teacher in any one upper elementary grade in an MES school spends at least the first few months of the school year simply making up the pupil achievement losses which occurred in the summer.

Given such findings, it may be that summer schools can be used as a vehicle for developing year-round schools for the disadvantaged child. Such an approach involves basic reordering of school organization and administration and requires a closer relationship with parents and the community.

MORE EFFECTIVE TEACHERS: There is a need for a new breed of professional who understands how to teach disadvantaged children rather than to confront the children with tasks which automatically make them failures. Creative and responsive teachers are essential factors in teaching the disadvantaged. As Edmund Gordon and Doxey Wilkerson of Yeshiva University point out in their book, *Compensatory Education for the Disadvantaged,* "none of the programs studied have come up with a substitute for effective teaching."

The SEAR report cites a poor relationship between student and teacher as the most frequent reason for failure of a school to influence neighborhood youth. To overcome this problem, the Minneapolis Public Schools announced a joint program with 35 colleges and universities to develop better teacher training for inner-city schools. An experimental project at Hunter College in New York City demonstrated that placing college trainees in difficult schools for a period of supervised practice teaching developed their competence to deal with disadvantaged pupils, and encouraged them to choose a "difficult" school in which to teach.

In Wisconsin, the State University system's 9 local colleges developed a program for Title I inservice training. It included cooperative relations between local school districts, training institutes, and State offices. The training program pooled the needs of the cooperating school districts and trained teachers to meet those needs.

The Cardozo Project in Washington, D.C., that employs returning Peace Corps volunteers, represents another current effort to prepare teachers for educating disadvantaged children.

PARENT PARTICIPATION: Parents of disadvantaged children have a tremendous potential that is not being tapped. Many want to help their children, but unlike middle-class parents they often do not know how to support classroom activities and other learning experiences provided by the school. Too often in the past, schools were a hostile fortress in the community of the disadvantaged. Now the attitudes of both schools and parents are changing. Parents are becoming more vocal, especially in the big city ghettos. And many school systems are taking steps to involve parents as active allies.

In Cleveland, a new school library in the Title I program has the services of neighborhood parents who were anxious to become parent aides and volunteers.

Houston offers special classes for mothers of disadvantaged children. As a result, there has been better followup on recommendations by nurses and counselors, and more parent visits to school. Parents have also accompanied student groups on educational tours and supervised trips to public health centers for immunizations and dental care.

In both St. Louis and Chicago, Title I workshops show parents what the new math is all about and what schools expect from their children. Teachers explain what is being taught and how parents can help. The schools have given students homework booklets in which assignments are written. Parents are asked to cooperate by providing work space in the home, adequate lighting, established homework times, and quiet.

For too many years, the division of responsibility for the education of children has been undefined. The new ferment taking place as a result of Title I activities is helping to identify legitimate roles parents can play in the education of their children.

COMMUNITY SCHOOL SYSTEMS: Part of the trouble in the big cities lies with their highly centralized and bureaucratic institutions. These school systems are often insulated from the public, a public becoming more vocal and more militant in pressing their demands for better education. Big city schools appear unable or unwilling to adjust their programs and institutions to changing educational needs which require more meaningful participation by parents in school policy and decision making. How can the community shake the rigid, almost inhuman school bureaucracy which often fails to use resources in a manner responsive to the needs and aspirations of the community?

Although bigness alone does not produce bureaucratic rigor mortis, the size of the city impairs effective communication, initiative, and problem-solving ability in the organization. As a result, the goals of quality education and equal educational opportunity suffer.

Lively public debate has been stirred by the report of the Mayor's Advisory Panel on Decentralization of New York City Schools which called for creation of a number of autonomous, locally governed community school districts in New York City. The study by A. Harry Passow on Creating a Model Urban School System also recommended decentralization of the Washington, D.C., school system with community superintendents and school boards elected by voters in the various school-communities.

Steps that have already been taken in Denver, in Detroit, and in Philadelphia to break down the centralized systems may be harbingers of things to come. But meaningful modification of big city organizations has not begun to meet the needs for more flexibility and the parent participation that is clearly required.

EDUCATIONAL DIAGNOSIS AND PRESCRIPTION: The disadvantaged child requires individual diagnosis and treatment of his learning disabilities which often stem from physical, nutritional, emotional, or social problems. These can be uncovered only through investigation, provided the teacher has enough insight. And treatment can only be given if the resources are available.

Title I has given great impetus to development and use of programed materials designed for the interest of the disadvantaged child who can learn at his own pace under the eye of his teacher who in turn can more easily spot his learning problems.

The Houston Title I evaluation report cites the use of recordings and tapes and reading machines which assist 260 pupils in developing speed and comprehension. These machines materially increased performance on the California Reading Tests.

The Title I intensive reading instructional teams project in Hartford, Conn., uses various teaching machines and pupil-teacher conferences to motivate, correct, and individualize each child's reading program. Results of pretesting-posttesting with the California Reading Test showed significant gains in vocabulary, comprehension, and total reading achievement.

Title I programs also show encouraging results with the initial teaching alphabet, color coded words, accelerated reading techniques, reading laboratory materials, and a host of other programed instruction techniques which individualize the teaching-learning process for part of the school day.

The Nation's schools are on the threshold of change. Much of this change will come from the seeds planted in the slums and poor rural areas. Stephen Fischer's statement, quoted at the start of this chapter, is true. The sharing of ideas will come, not with blind acceptance of new techniques but with "an examination of old questions" that up to now have been avoided. Ironically, suburban school systems are also experiencing discontent from the communities they serve. This means that a similar reexamination is taking place in the rich schools as well as those in the heart of the city slums.

V

THE STATES REPORT

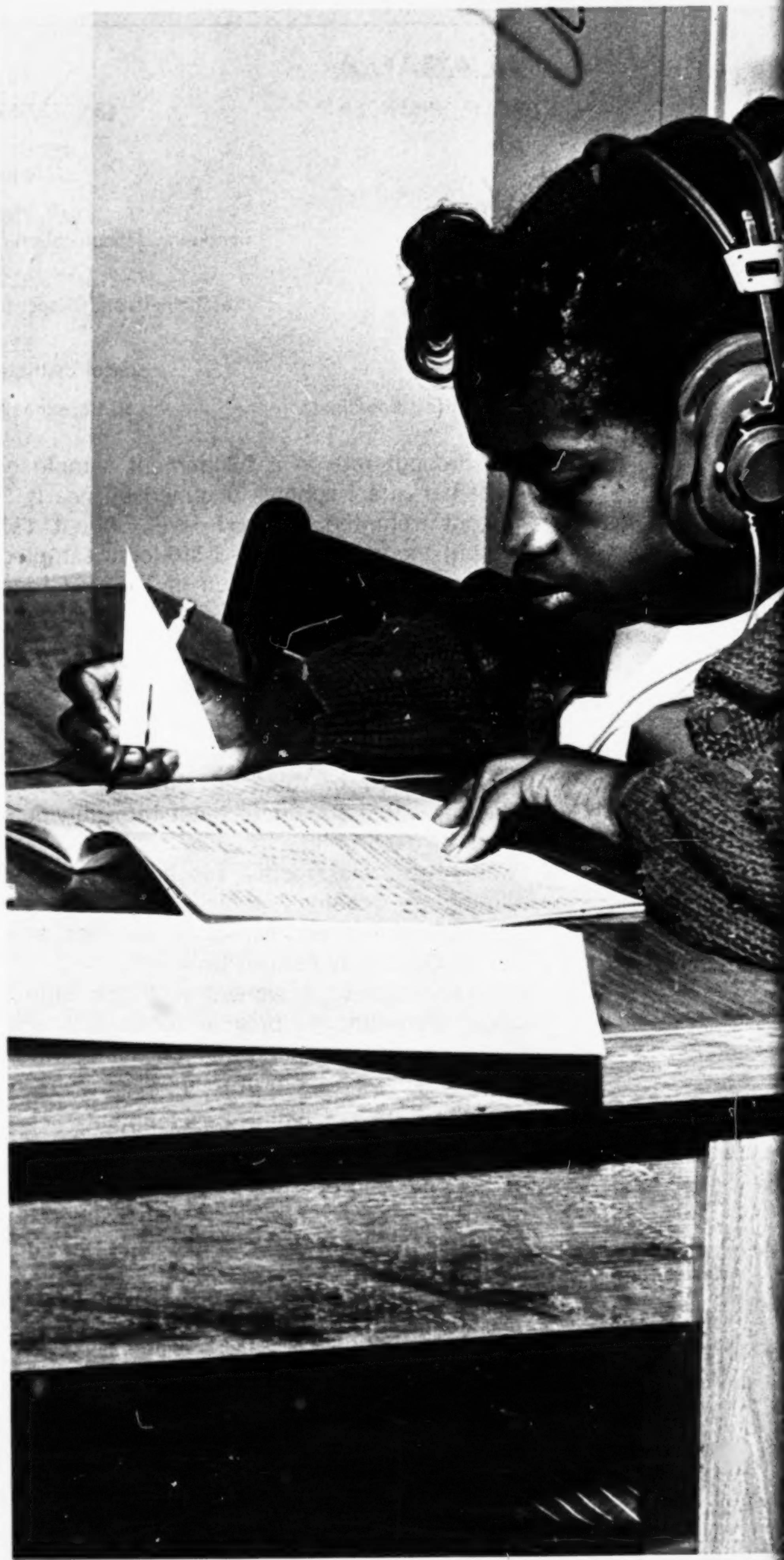
The following highlights come from the annual reports submitted by State Title I coordinators and evaluators.

Each report gives basic Title I statistics for the State, a brief look at major achievements, and one or two examples of programs which the State considered outstanding during the program's first full year of operation—September 1966 through August 1967.

Achievements are reported in a variety of ways—by a gain in years of instruction, by grade advancement, by movement from the lower quarter of the national norm.
Unless specified, a year of instruction refers to a 10-month school year.

For the most part, the States concentrated on remedial reading, math, the social studies, and cultural enrichment in that order during 1966-67. In nearly all instances, the programs also included food, health, psychological, and social services.

Most educators reported that this comprehensive approach was the most effective way to help the educationally deprived child.



ALABAMA

TITLE I PROVIDED	$31,013,087
FOR	452,771 children
INCLUDING	5,764 nonpublic school children 13,927 preschoolers and dropouts
FROM	113 school districts
State Title I Coordinator	J. H. Boockholdt

The dropout rate in a 53 percent sample of Alabama Title I schools declined by nearly 9 percent from the 1965-66 level. About 1½ percent more of the Title I students sampled went on to higher education in 1966-67 than during the previous year. Title I youngsters demonstrated a reading growth of 1.3 years in 1966-67.

Calhoun County: Remedial Reading

More than 1,300 children in grades 1 through 9 participated in this concentrated reading program which sought to meet the individual needs of each child.

Twenty-two classroom teachers received training as reading specialists through extensive inservice and workshop sessions, several conducted by Auburn University.

A library supervisor worked with the Title I school librarians to provide interesting and attractive reading materials for the children and to encourage them in reading.

Tuscaloosa City: Reading Development

Basic reading development programs were extended and seven special reading teachers worked with 28 regular classroom teachers to provide more individual guidance and instruction.

Library programs also were strengthened and book stacks offered a greater variety of new and interesting materials to whet the appetites of the children.

ALASKA

TITLE I PROVIDED	$1,883,190
FOR	16,391 children
INCLUDING	627 nonpublic school children
FROM	24 out of 38 school districts
Coordinator Federal Programs	Nat Cole

The dropout rate in Alaska's Title I schools was reported as 11 percent. In non-Title I schools, it was 17 percent.

A select sample of 1,178 sixth and seventh grade Title I children showed 322 were in the lowest quarter on math achievement tests at the beginning of the school year; 252 were there when the year closed.

A similar sample of the same children revealed comparable gains on reading achievement tests.

Nome: Wm. E. Beltz Regional Boarding School

The students were predominantly Eskimos from remote villages. Most came from big families and lived in substandard one or two room houses with close family and village relationships. Cultural patterns included sleeping clothed, eating uncooked food gathered in the local area, and no toilet facilities. Adjustment to dormitory life in the past had been poor.

To meet the problem, guidance counselors visited each student, his family, and village council months before school opened. The student received information about dormitory life and was told what would be expected of him at school. The staff prepared a complete dossier on each prospective student, his family, home environment, medical, and academic history. This was used to aid the teacher in understanding the pupil and in preparing materials to meet his specific needs. It was also made available to the Rural Teachers Project of the University of Alaska and for Educating the Culturally Different Program of the Northwest Regional Education Laboratory.

ARIZONA

TITLE I PROVIDED	$8,971,597
FOR	146,716 children
INCLUDING	12,458 nonpublic school children

FROM	174 school districts
Director State Federal Programs	Wayne Taysom

During 1966-67:

In Phoenix, the State's largest city, the dropout rate in Title I schools decreased while the rate in all public schools increased.

Also in Phoenix, the percentage of Title I high school pupils who climbed from below to above the median national score ranged from 11.3 percent to 26.5 percent, depending upon the grade level.

Inservice and preservice programs provided 1,521 teachers with additional training needed to cope with the problems of the culturally deprived.

Twenty preschool projects were conducted for 2,794 four- and five-year-olds.

Teacher aides played a predominant role in 71 districts.

Murphy District 21, Greater Phoenix: Reading and Related Subjects

Reading instruction was tailored to the needs of individual children through the use of an electronic learning center plus three classrooms with mobile tape and head phone units. Classes, which also focused on improving speaking skills, were limited to 10 pupils. There were separate classes each day for the second through seventh grades. Teacher aides worked with first, second, and third graders so that those children identified as educationally deprived during the previous year would continue to receive concentrated instruction. Health and psychological services and lunches were provided. The project also included an inservice program for parents, teachers, and aides. A weekly bulletin kept the community informed. All services were also available to nonpublic school children who lived in the district.

ARKANSAS

TITLE I PROVIDED	$20,861,373
FOR	168,000 children
INCLUDING	2,000 nonpublic school children
	1,000 preschool children and dropouts
FROM	391 out of 400 school districts
Associate Commissioner for Federal Programs	William H. Moore

While Arkansas' projects placed major emphasis on early childhood education and remedial programs, the most significant achievements were gains toward desegregation.

Eighty-six school districts were fully desegregated from the first through twelfth grades by the end of the 1967 summer. Seventeen other districts desegregated high schools. Four districts, none of which operate high schools, completely desegregated their elementary schools.

The State Education Department reported that: "The emphasis of Title I programs on the educational needs of the culturally and economically deprived child has pointed up the great inadequacies and educational problems connected with dual school systems."

Estimated reading achievement was 1.7 years over the 8-month instructional period.

About 58 percent of 16,600 high school graduates of Title I schools continued their education as compared with 53 percent of 16,500 graduates in 1965-66.

Little Rock: Dental Services Project

A mobile dental unit equipped with two chairs traveled from school to school providing a full range of dental services to children who otherwise could not afford them. The unit was manned by local dentists who worked on their days off.

Pine Bluff: Remedial Summer School

Elementary school students who were 1 or more grades behind their class median participated in a remedial summer school program that operated for 6 weeks, 5 days a week, 4½ hours a day. Both Negro and white students and teachers were involved.

Special courses emphasizing language arts and arithmetic sought to strengthen the specific weakness of each child. When the program started, students averaged 2.1 grades below the national norm. In follow-up tests 6 weeks later, the students averaged only 1.8 grades under the norm.

CALIFORNIA

TITLE I PROVIDED	$74,360,293
FOR	370,000 children
INCLUDING	16,000 nonpublic school children
FROM	940 school districts
Director of Compensatory Education	Wilson C. Riles

"Relatively few school districts reported average gains of less than a month for every month of instruction, while in some districts the average was almost 3 years' gain during the year.

"In rare instances, the growth exceeded 4 years in special tutorial programs with highly individualized instruction."

Out of 1,050 Title I projects in California, 83.1 percent showed progress that exceeded previous performance.

Much of California's success may be attributed to inservice teacher training programs. About 66 percent of the 35 projects in 1966-67 made a special effort to train teachers to recognize and meet the needs of the disadvantaged child. A year earlier, only 16 percent of 73 projects had teacher training programs.

In addition, 7,577 persons served on school district advisory committees. Of these, 5,012 were residents of low income areas, including 2,869 parents of disadvantaged children participating in Title I activities.

Paramount: A Demonstration School

Children in this elementary school, located in the Los Angeles metropolitan area, showed an average reading growth of 1.8 years during an 8-month period. About 20 percent of the enrollment is Mexican-American. The school serves as a showcase for the district in teaching educationally deprived children.

The program emphasized inservice training for teachers, both to increase their understanding of deprived children and to improve their teaching skills.

Other activities included the development of special instructional materials, English language classes, psychological and health services, home visits by a social worker, use of consultants from a nearby college, cultural enrichment, and reduction of the pupil-teacher ratio.

Sacramento: A Comprehensive Program Featuring Desegregation

The Sacramento Unified School District is an urban center with a large proportion of Negro and Mexican-Americans. A comprehensive program at all grade levels was conducted. It included language laboratories, reading and instructional materials centers, smaller classes, counseling, summer activities, nutritional services, teacher aides, study trips, and inservice teacher training.

A major focus of the city's Title I program was on integrating its Negro pupils into primarily Caucasian schools to overcome the negative effect of segregation on learning. Title I services followed the Negro child to his new school. The 5,428 Title I children gained at least 1 year in reading, mathematics, and language during an 8-month period.

COLORADO

TITLE I PROVIDED	$8,566,375
FOR	43,615 children
INCLUDING	2,425 nonpublic school children
FROM	155 school districts
Director Division of Title I, ESEA	Ward M. Vining

About 30,400 children in reading programs demonstrated a measured growth of 1.9 years' improvement for 1 year of instruction. This compares with 27,784 children who averaged 1.5 years' reading improvement for a year of instruction in 1965-66.

Evaluation data also showed that the dropout rate in Title I schools decreased by 0.7 of 1 percent while the dropout rate in other local schools increased by 0.3 of 1 percent. Those pupils who dropped out of school did so more in later grades during 1966-67 than in previous years.

Poudre R-1 School District: Reading and Cultural Development Programs

The reading program in Poudre R-1 concentrated on motivating the slow learner. Over a 7-month period, the children gained an average of 1.7 years in reading rate and comprehension.

The cultural development program featured afterschool and summer activities which served 700 children. It achieved an effective balance between remediation, health, and recreation as well as art, music, and intergroup relations.

La Plata: Mobile Cultural Center

Over 70 percent of the children in La Plata District 11 qualified for Title I. For these children—Ute and Navajo Indians, Spanish and Mexican as well as Anglo Saxons—a mobile cultural center provided a unique educational experience. Over 300 youngsters participated in academic and cultural programs which used the entire State and southwest territory as a learning laboratory.

The program was funded jointly by Title I and the Bureau of Indian Affairs.

CONNECTICUT

TITLE I PROVIDED	$8,567,812
FOR	52,000 children
INCLUDING	7,500 nonpublic school children
IN	235 projects
State Title I Coordinator	Alexander Plante

An examination of selected measures of comparison indicate that Title I and non-Title I schools in Connecticut are becoming similar in some important areas.

The attendance rate, for example, is now only 3 percent less in Title I schools than in non-Title I schools—90.1 percent vs. 92.9 percent.

Similarly, after two years of Title I, the dropout rate (indicated by selective sampling) is almost comparable with that of non-Title I schools—3.4 percent and 2.9 percent, respectively.

Grade promotions for Title I children were only slightly lower—92.8 percent in Title I schools; 94.4 percent, Statewide.

An analysis of 52 Title I projects directly concerned with improving reading skills shows 84 percent of the projects produced substantial test score gains.

Hartford: English-as-a-Second Language

Reception centers were established in three public schools to provide a contact point for Spanish-speaking families moving into the district. The most frequent services were grade placements of new children, translations of school records, and family referrals to social, employment, and housing agencies.

The center staff also offered an introduction to the English language for all new arrivals and continued language help for the child as he progessed in school. Workshops focused on developing effective teaching skills of teachers from the schools with highest enrollment of non-English-speaking youth.

DELAWARE

TITLE I PROVIDED	$2,145,235
FOR	10,857 children
INCLUDING	699 nonpublic school children
FROM	36 school districts
Coordinator of Title I, ESEA	Audrey Doberstein

In 1966-67, standardized reading tests on samplings ranging from 331 to 698 children for each of grades 1 through 6 showed that on the average;

At the End of	Title I Children Were Reading at
Grade 1	2.1 grade level
Grade 2	2.7 grade level
Grade 3	3.6 grade level
Grade 4	4.1 grade level
Grade 5	4.9 grade level
Grade 6	6.4 grade level

Wilmington: Comprehensive Program

This project accounted for over half of the State's Title I money. It involved 5,256 pupils and 71 teachers in a reading improvement program operated throughout the school year and during a 6-week summer session. Also included was a work study program for junior high school youngsters. The instructional program utilized audio-visual materials, home-school coordinators, and teacher aides.

A Reading Service Center provided a wide range of supportive services in the areas of health, nutrition, and guidance and counseling.

Harrington Special School District: Verbal and Mathematics Skills Development

This two-phase project enhanced verbal skills of educationally deprived children in grades 2 through 6. Two reading consultants, two reading specialists, and a reading aide worked with 130 children during the school year. An 8-week summer program reinforced gains made in the regular school year by providing small group instruction for the same children. In addition, a mathematics teacher worked with 45 junior high school students and a physical education director served the entire enrollment.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA

TITLE I PROVIDED	$5,717,037
FOR	25,314 children
INCLUDING	1,265 nonpublic school children
FROM	1 school district
Coordinator of Title I, ESEA	Dr. Joseph Carroll

The rate of reading achievement of Title I pupils in the District of Columbia did not change significantly during 1966-67.

A test sample of 189 pupils—from a variety of socio-economic levels—representing grades 2 through 5 showed pupils achieved from 6 to 7 months' reading growth in the school year. Past evidence indicates that the average child with a poverty background gains about 7 months per school year.

School to Aid Youth (STAY)

The STAY program was designed primarily to encourage students to return to regular school programs and to assist them in readjusting to the routine of school. It focused on young people between 16 and 21 who had dropped out of school for various reasons.

The curriculum included all courses required to earn a high school diploma. It was so structured that a student could earn in one semester the number of units normally earned in two. The regular school day began at 3:45 and ended at 9:45 p.m. This schedule allowed many students to work during the day. In 1967-68, a night child care center was added to provide care and an education program for children from 6 months to 3 years—and to allow their mothers to attend classes.

Pupil Personnel Services

This program sought to help solve or alleviate the individual emotional, mental, physical, and social problems of the culturally deprived children of the District of Columbia. A team of pupil personnel workers—psychologists, counselors, social workers, psychiatrists, and worker aides—made both home and school contacts with the pupils. Each child needing help was assigned to a team and continued with this team even though he moved from one school to another, thus providing continuity of support.

FLORIDA

TITLE I PROVIDED	$28,452,341
FOR	244,145 children
FROM	70 school districts
Director, Federal-State Relations	Jon L. Stapleton

Florida's Title I programs scored successes on many fronts:

The dropout rate in Title I schools fell 0.5 percent while that in other schools rose 0.4 percent.

Schools with one-third or more Title I children saw a 10.5 percent increase in the number of high school graduates continuing their education. Graduates of non-Title I schools showed an increase of only 7 percent.

The number of Title I children rated in the lowest quarter in reading tests was reduced 6 percent. The number in the highest quarter increased 3 percent.

In Duval County, the second largest in the State, 54 percent of the parents of children in reading projects were involved in school activities.

Five Title I schools in slum areas in Tampa reported no vandalism during the 1967 school year.

In a sample of 20 percent of the Title I students, discipline problems reportedly dropped 42 percent.

Duval County: READS Program

The READS program—Reading Education and Diagnostic Service—brought the combined efforts of the parent, teacher and child to bear on the child's reading problems. The program provided: reading laboratory experience and diagnostic service; a parent-school link to enable the parent to develop insight into the child's emotional and reading problems; and assistance to aid the teacher in recognizing the child's reading disabilities and allow her to explore all avenues of assistance.

Dade County: Visiting Teacher-Counselor Program

Dade County employed 24 visiting teachers-counselors with backgrounds in both education and social work or guidance. These VTCs coordinated the efforts of the teacher, the principal, the child, the home, and applicable community agencies. A majority of the children included in this project showed a significant improvement in both academic achievement and attitude.

GEORGIA

TITLE I PROVIDED	$35,072,317
FOR	321,927 children
FROM	185 out of 196 school systems
Evaluator, Title I, ESEA	Dr. Edward Barnes

Georgia's evaluation report, from a sample of 159 systems, showed that in 1966-67:

109 activities for food service were developed to remedy nutritional deficiencies.

About 85 percent of the Title I participants were reading below the national average. To help these children, reading activities were included in 155 of 169 Title I projects.

An analysis of the 63 Title I summer school projects in the State indicated that pupil attitudes toward school had greatly improved.

"Title I helped initiate kindergarten programs in 1966-67, and the impact of the local education agencies on the State Legislature has helped to cause a primary political pressure to institute public kindergartens in the State of Georgia."

Savannah-Chatham County: Reading Program

Eight itinerant teachers worked with small groups of third and fourth grade children who were not making satisfactory progress in reading. The program operated in 16 special reading centers.

As a result: The children's self-image was improved; they acquired a more positive attitude toward school; they enjoyed reading for the first time. And they delighted in using the library.

Richmond County: Comprehensive Project

This programs served 842 children who had various physical and mental handicaps and were classified at every grade level from prekindergarten to twelfth grade. More than half were ungraded.

The project was carried forward during the regular school term and 8 weeks in the summer. The children profited from physical therapy, new hearing devices, and other rehabilitative aids. In addition, they are now achieving at a rapid rate and have come a long way toward becoming participating members of society.

HAWAII

TITLE I PROVIDED	$2,301,425
FOR	17,338 children
INCLUDING	380 nonpublic school children
IN	1,110 regular and 24 summer programs
Program Director, Title I	Elizabeth M. Tapscott

Title I programs significantly increased reading and language arts achievements of educationally disadvantaged children in this island State during 1966-67. Standardized test results showed:

Title I pupils achieved 9 months' reading growth for 7.5 months' instruction.

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The majority of Title I projects in the State also reported inservice training programs had brought about "positive changes" in methods and approaches used by teachers working with disadvantaged children.

Leeward District of Oahu: Remedial Reading Project

Reading specialists worked with 120 elementary and 86 secondary pupils singly or in small groups. A remedial reading center, located on the campus of Nanaikapono School and staffed by three reading specialists, assisted low-income children in overcoming a lack of experiential background and standard English.

Honolulu: Summer Program

In urban Honolulu, 404 children from nine public and three nonpublic schools took part in a half-day program for 6 weeks. Fifty percent of the children's time centered around nonacademic activities such as arts and crafts, music, creative dramatics, and organized recreation. The other 50 percent concentrated on language arts—reading, speaking, writing, story telling, and group discussions. Major emphasis was placed on improving oral communications. The average progress of the children during the 6 weeks was 2.5 months.

IDAHO

TITLE I PROVIDED	$2,725,898
FOR	54,100 children
INCLUDING	2,500 nonpublic school children
FROM	107 school districts
Director of Title I, P.L. 89-10	Loren Hicks

There have been three major achievements under Title I of Statewide significance:

- Development of prekindergarten and kindergarten programs in the public schools. Up to 1965-66 there were none.
- The establishment of 31 library projects including centralized elementary school libraries and the training of teachers as librarians. Centralized elementary libraries were almost nonexistent in the State before Title I.
- The hiring of 185 adults and 38 students as teacher-aides.

General achievement test scores of 4,364 Title I children showed 1,108 in the lowest quarter when the 1967 school year began. By the end of the school year, 230 or about 25 percent of those in the lowest quarter had risen to the top three quarters.

The dropout rate showed that 224 out of 6,121 Title I children had left school in 1967 as compared with 1,934 out of 176,263 pupils from all other public schools.

Wilder: Comprehensive Program

More than half of the enrollment is classified as low-income. To meet the special needs of these children, this school district:

- Expanded the high school commercial department
- Established elementary library facilities
- Employed a fulltime librarian who was able to help bi-lingual children select suitable reading materials
- Established a developmental course in reading aimed at individualizing instruction through audio program to aid reluctant readers in grades 1 through 6
- Upgraded the high school science department
- Added two learning laboratories—one in foreign language and another in math
- Included child care as part of the home economics program.

ILLINOIS

TITLE I PROVIDED	$47,180,934
FOR	242,971 children
INCLUDING	23,790 nonpublic school children 2,069 preschoolers and dropouts
FROM	1,232 school attendance areas
Director of Title I, ESEA	Dr. Noah S. Neace

The most significant achievements noted during 1966-67 were: (1) general improvement in the quality of Title I projects and (2) increased ability to evaluate the specific needs of disadvantaged children and to design projects to meet these needs.

As a natural by-product, better services were provided, such as afterschool and evening programs for dropouts, remedial instruction during regular school hours, and special programs for rehabilitation of emotionally unstable children.

Since the inception of Title I, the reading achievement of educationally deprived children in the State increased between 200 and 300 percent.

Mattoon: Reading Travelab

A school bus, made into a reading lab with Title I funds, proved uniquely successful. It served as a diagnostic, teaching, and learning center on wheels. Rolling staff included a reading specialist, a reading teacher, and a combination driver and clerical aide.

After testing and diagnosis, children needing special help were seen each week by the travelab reading teacher and daily by a special reading teacher in each of the schools. The reading specialist also consulted with other teachers concerning achievement, methods and materials.

Chicago: Teaching English-as-a-Second Language (TESL)

Specially trained teachers worked with more than 5,500 Title I pupils whose first language was not English.

Contributing to the program's success were: Availability of special audio-lingual teaching techniques of the Fundamental Skills Approach to modern language learning, the use of electronic equipment and teaching devices, the ability of a teacher to humanize these activities and to know, understand, and appreciate the cultural background of the pupils.

More than 175 teachers received TESL in-service education in four 2-week summer sessions during the summer of 1966. Other TESL programs during 1967 served more than 150 teachers.

INDIANA

TITLE I PROVIDED	$15,377,019
FOR	162,552 children
INCLUDING	16,779 nonpublic school children

MOBILE REA
D
C O U

NG CENTER
Y SCHOOLS

FROM	144 school districts
Coordinator, Title I, ESEA	Benjamin F. Rice

The Indiana Title I program showed varying degree of success. For example:

The dropout rate in a 40 percent sample of grades 7-12 was 4.4 percent in Title I schools as compared with 3.9 percent in non-Title I schools.

In a sample of school districts, 41 percent of 19,313 graduates of Title I high schools continued their education. In the same sample, 11,099 graduates of non-Title I schools or 49 percent continued their education after high school.

In reading—based on the Metropolitan Reading Test for grades 2 through 8 and the Gates Reading Test for grade 9—Title I youngsters showed an achievement of 6 months for 7 months in the classroom.

On pretests, 72 percent of the Title I pupils placed in the lowest quarter of the national norm; on posttests, only 55 percent remained there.

Elkhart: Comprehensive Program

Children from prekindergarten through grade 6 received a full year of instruction centered on reading and other English language skills. Personnel included reading specialists, guidance counselors, and social workers. Individual instruction and early identification of learning and psychological problems were prime program targets. There were 573 public, 93 nonpublic and 105 preschool children in the project.

During 1966-67, the program reduced failures substantially. This was largely attributed to inservice training opportunities for teachers. The courses markedly changed teacher attitudes and increased their understanding of the educationally deprived child. As a result, the teachers were more flexible, and the pupils adjusted better to classroom situations.

IOWA

TITLE I PROVIDED	$15,568,711
FOR	101,083 children
INCLUDING	12,033 nonpublic school children
FROM	475 school districts
Coordinator, Title I, ESEA	R. F. Van Dyke

Slow but steady achievement and a decrease in the dropout rate highlighted the Title I successes in Iowa.

A small but representative sample of children in Title I schools showed a rise in their reading abilities of 1.1 years in 8 months. The dropout rate declined from 1965-66 to 1966-67, while the rate for the State as a whole rose slightly.

Low-income parents continued to show an interest in their children's school activities. Participation in school affairs rose 3.4 percent over the previous year.

About 3 percent more Title I students continued their education after high school in 1966-67 than in the year earlier.

Fremont Mills and Radcliffe: Industrial Arts

These two schools implemented similar projects under Title I to add special training courses to meet the needs of boys considered by school officials as potential dropouts. Many of the project participants remained in school until graduation; some even planned to continue their education.

LeMars: A Comprehensive Program

This project extended from preschool through grade 12. The preschool provided disadvantaged youngsters with much-needed background experiences so they could fit more readily into the regular school system. A special kindergarten served those who still were not ready for regular kindergarten, even after preschool. Remedial reading and math activities were provided throughout all 12 grades.

The most innovative aspect of the project was Camp Quest—an abandoned quarry turned into an outdoor classroom for natural science.

KANSAS

TITLE I PROVIDED	$10,092,438
FOR	98,459 children
INCLUDING	7,989 nonpublic school children

FROM	296 school districts
Director, Title I	Henry A. Parker

For 1966-67, Kansas reports:

- A 13 percent decrease in the dropout rate of Title I children.
- 80 percent (of a 50 percent sample) improved their reading comprehension 1.7 grade levels.
- A survey among parents indicated 72 percent of the students had improved their attitudes toward school. Teacher-observation reports raised this figure to 91 percent.
- 58 percent of graduates from Title I schools planned to continue their education.
- In the 1966-67 school year, 219 Title I summer schools were in operation as compared with 113 in 1965-66. Before Title I only 8 percent operated in the summer; after Title I, nearly 70 percent did.

Derby: Living Library

The public schools set up a library where children could check out goldfish and other animals along with their books. Plants, toads, snakes, turtles, spiders, lizards, and a collection of insects—all were available to take home overnight for observation and study.

A typical reaction was that of the pupil who told the librarian he liked to come to the library now because he could take home "real things" as well as books.

Great Bend: Mobile Reading Lab

To provide specialized reading instruction in small, isolated schools, this district used Title I funds to purchase a mobile reading unit. The mobile lab traveled from school to school, providing children who had reading problems with individualized or small group instruction. Classes lasted 20 to 25 minutes. One parochial school was included.

KENTUCKY

TITLE I PROVIDED	$27,607,634
FOR	201,913 children
INCLUDING	8,717 nonpublic school children
FROM	198 school districts
Coordinator, Title I, ESEA	Fred D. Williams

In Kentucky, 3,628 pupils took the California reading test. Of these, 44.4 percent scored in the bottom quarter on the pretest; on posttests, 11 percent of those in the lowest quarter had moved upward.

The most dramatic change occurred in the first three grades. Here, 40.6 percent placed in the bottom quarter on pretests, but only 20.2 percent were still there on posttests. Similarly, the number of children in the top quarter increased by 25 percent.

The dropout rate in Kentucky (based on a 50 percent sample) rose slightly.

Kentucky's Title I schools also showed a significant increase in attendance rates.

Daviess County: Instructional Materials Center

A materials center was established to provide instructional aids for children in both public and nonpublic schools. All films, filmstrips, and instructional aids were housed in the Center located in a former home adjacent to the Daviess County High School.

The Daviess County Board of Education supplied a truck for delivery of materials. Title I financed the services of a librarian and an aide as well as supplies and equipment. Daily pick-up and delivery trips were made to eight eligible schools.

Louisville: Classes of Twenty

Classes of Twenty were established to provide small classes for under-achievers at the secondary level. These classes used carefully selected materials and audio-visual aids.

Principals and teachers agree that the attitude and general response of the pupils in these classes have been favorable. The project has probably caused many pupils to remain in school and continue their progress toward graduation.

LOUISIANA

TITLE I PROVIDED	$29,300,680
FOR	363,575 children
INCLUDING	10,728 nonpublic school children
	5,662 children not in school
FROM	50 school districts
Director, Federally Assisted Programs	Synder Caldwell

The outstanding success of Title I programs in Louisiana in 1966-67 was the surprising increase in the number of children who continued their education after high school. In the first year of Title I, only 43 percent went on to school; in 1966-67 nearly 46 percent did. This compares most favorably with the average of 51.8 percent for non-Title I schools. Much of the increase in continued education of Title I pupils is attributed to much broader—and better—guidance and counseling.

Similarly, Title I schools saw a reduction in the dropout rate—from 3.6 in 1965 to 3.4 percent in 1966.

Orleans Parish: English-as-a-Second Language

This parish placed 10 full-time teachers in two public elementary and in several parochial schools to work with children whose native tongue was not English. In schools where the numbers of such students did not justify a permanent teacher, an itinerant teacher was provided.

Many of the children in this program had been assigned to grade levels below their social age, physical development, emotional maturity, and mental capabilities. The English-as-a-second language program resulted in a better understanding of classroom activities and an improvement in all subjects studied. It helped cut down the number of older students who became discouraged and dropped out of school.

In the long run, this program can be credited with increasing considerably the employment potential of the students.

MAINE

TITLE I PROVIDED	$3,373,204
FOR	47,074 children
INCLUDING	3,466 nonpublic school children
	743 out-of-school children
IN	169 projects
Coordinator, ESEA, Title I	Joseph J. Devitt

Among the significant achievements in Maine in 1966-67 were:

- The number of dropouts in Title I schools fell from 1,759 in 1965-66 to 1,528 last year.
- Six hundred more graduates of Title I high schools continued their education in 1966-67 than a year earlier.
- Of a total 104 remedial reading students in one school, 33 returned to normal classroom reading. Those who remained in remedial work averaged one year's progress. (These students normally gain about a half year.)

Skowhegan: COPE

The COPE project—a Community Oriented Program of Education—focused on high school students.

Slow learners in ninth and tenth grade followed a program specially designed to meet their needs. They used programmed materials and audio-visual aids, and went on field trips. Juniors and seniors received a basic core of academic work plus job orientation. For 3 hours each morning, students worked in local business establishments.

Howland: Home Building and Construction Skills

Housing is limited in this area. So school officials developed a vocationally-oriented program in building and construction skills for educationally deprived pupils.

Forty pupils in grades 9 through 12 participated in the first phase of this project in 1966-67—the construction of the building where the trades program would be held. The high school students started with basic blueprint reading, the purchase of materials, and then the actual construction. They laid the foundation for the building, did the framing, sheathing, siding and roofing; they assisted in wiring and brickwork. Upon completion, the pupils were qualified to work on small homes and other wooden structures as carpenters' helpers.

MARYLAND

TITLE I PROVIDED	$14,667,876
FOR	80,000 children

INCLUDING	6,375 nonpublic school children including summer and winter programs
FROM	23 school systems
Coordinator of Title I, ESEA	Thomas Pyles

Maryland children—outside the Baltimore area—showed moderate progress in reading achievement during 1966-67.

Of a sample of 3,554 Title I pupils in the elementary grades, 1,754 were in the lowest quarter of their classes when the 1966-67 school year began. At the end of the year, only 1,373 pupils remained in the lowest quarter.

In the Title I high schools, the dropout rate, as indicated by a 50 percent sample, maintained the previous year's level.

Data for Baltimore, the State's largest city, were not available.

Worcester County: Instrumental Music

One of the innovative features of this program was the utilization of 10 musically talented high school boys and girls as teaching aides. Children who participated in this program came from a Negro community in which poverty was prevalent and academic achievement low. Yet, many possessed extraordinary musical talent. Providing these children with an instrument and a chance to acquire a proficiency with it gave many a real sense of worth. The program was oriented to the strengths rather than to the weaknesses of educationally deprived children.

Prince Georges County: Operation: Moving Ahead

"Operation: Moving Ahead" focused on the educational needs of approximately 2,500 primary school pupils who came to school without the experience, the language, the developmental skills, or the intellectual stimulation needed to assure success.

96 "children's aides" were employed to assist the pupils in small group situations. 8 trained "helping teachers" were hired, and 22 "parent helpers" assisted in the project.

MASSACHUSETTS

TITLE I PROVIDED	$14,916,771
FOR	87,000 children
INCLUDING	17,000 nonpublic school children
FROM	299 school districts
(Acting) Coordinator of Title I, ESEA	Robert L. Jeffrey

A major effort was directed at keeping disadvantaged children in school. A sampling of 40 percent of the potential dropouts in urban areas involved in Title I work-study programs showed a retention rate of 65 percent. This compares with an 18 percent retention rate among matched students not in these programs.

In a selected sampling, 32 percent of the children scored in the lowest quarter on a reading test; only 18 percent were still there after 8 months in Title I.

A similar sample found 32 percent of the Title I students ranked in the lowest quarter of the national norm on a mathematics test; posttests showed only 8 percent in this quarter.

Martha's Vineyard: Mobile Science Lab

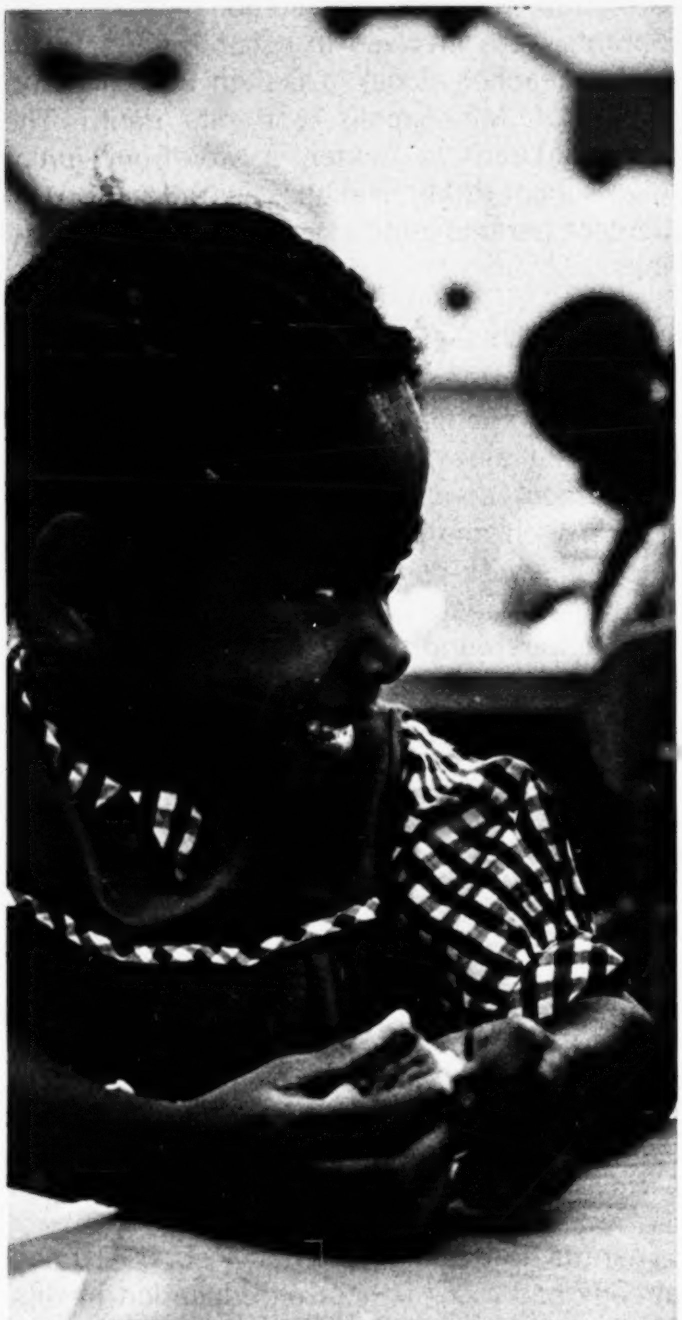
Four towns—Edgartown, Gay Head, Oak Bluffs, Tisbury—participated in Operation Fishnet, a program built around a fully-equipped mobile science laboratory. The 16-student lab focused on the study of marine biology, astronomy, and geology and gave Title I youngsters a feeling of being "lucky" (rather than "isolated") in their island life.

On a typical day, the young scientists saw a movie on the ocean, dissected a frog, heard a lecture and planetarium demonstration on moon phases and tidal effects, and viewed a student-selected filmstrip. Between organized activities, they set up terrariums and aquariums, and took hourly weather observations with instruments.

New Bedford: Summer Day Camp

Camp ECHO (Educational, Cultural, and Health Opportunities) was located on the waterfront 4 miles east of New Bedford.

A total of 125 second through seventh graders enjoyed its facilities. They were selected because of economic deprivation, poor health, social maladjustment, or severe learning difficulties. A third of them came from homes affected by divorce or death. For 2 weeks, the youngsters ate and sang, played, swam, and followed nature trails. And each day there were lessons—tutorial help in language and math, with options in music, nature, athletics, and dramatics.



MICHIGAN

TITLE I PROVIDED	$32,407,534
FOR	339,728 children
INCLUDING	22,159 nonpublic school children
FROM	576 school districts
Director of Compensatory Education	Louis Kocsis

During the second year of Title I in Michigan:

- The dropout rate decreased 1.7 percent in schools which had a third or more Title I pupils as compared with 0.7 percent during 1965-66.
- A pre and posttest sample of 3,358 pupils taking standardized reading tests showed 1,433 pupils in the lowest quarter at the start of the school year and 1,147 at the end of the regular school year.
- Almost 3,000 neglected and delinquent children benefited from more than $400,000 worth of educational programs started under Title I.

Traverse City: Reading Improvement Plus Improvement in Attitudes and Discipline

One hundred elementary children in grades 4 through 6 participated in a reading improvement program on Saturday mornings for 24 weeks. A similar program for 200 junior high school students also offered prevocational training and information.

On the high school level, 360 boys participated in reading improvement, general shop, an interdisciplinary block class, and a field laboratory.

The field laboratory offered educational experiences in land use, wood lot management, outdoor camping, building construction, plant identification, and habitat.

Activities included building a 30′ by 40′ classroom, road construction, refurbishing a sawmill, drilling a well, planting grain to feed wildlife, trout stream improvement, development of a camping area for student groups, thinning a wood lot, and opening a nature trail for the many other classes that made use of the laboratory.

A well-qualified instructor with empathy for the students selected (severe discipline cases) was assigned to this project. Every participant stayed in school; none continued to be disciplinary problems.

MINNESOTA

TITLE I PROVIDED	$19,651,289
FOR	154,000 children
INCLUDING	15,000 nonpublic school children
FROM	1,125 school districts
Administrator, Title I, ESEA	Jack Hanson

Thirty percent of a 38,000 sample of Title I children tested before and after special reading programs throughout the State in 1966-67 gained more than a year in reading ability during the school year.

Also, more high school students continued their education after graduation than in the year before—about 65.4 percent as compared with 63.7 percent in 1965-66.

Parents were involved in school affairs (notably as teacher aides) in Duluth and the Twin Cities of Minneapolis and St. Paul. The Lincoln Learning Center, a storefront junior high school in Minneapolis, had a regular 100 percent parents-pupil attendance at PTA meetings.

Minneapolis: Teacher Aides

A school-year-long experiment in kindergarten and first grade classes demonstrated the value of teacher aides, especially those residing in the school community. Some classes were set up with one aide, others with five aides, and some with none. Many of the aides were parents of Title I children. At the end of the year it was found that the aides' services had helped to increase achievement among the pupils.

MISSISSIPPI

TITLE I PROVIDED	$23,562,737
FOR	353,869 children
INCLUDING	3,565 nonpublic school children
FROM	144 school districts
Coordinator of Title I, ESEA	W. L. Hearn

"There is no question but that P. L. 89-10 has already had more impact on education in this State than any other single piece of educational legislation ever drafted."

This is reflected in the results which showed that in 1966-67:

- Average daily attendance was up 1.1 percent over the previous year in grades 1 through 12.

- A total of 7,457 Title I students continued their education after high school graduation in 1967 as compared with 7,130 in 1966.

During the school year, nearly 400 pupils in a representative sample of 2,905 youngsters in grades 2, 4, 6, and 8 moved up from the lowest quarter toward the national norm.

Jeff Davis County: Special Instructional Activities and Services

In this district, 2,387 of the 3,805 children enrolled in grades 1 through 12 come from low-income families. Fifty percent of these children were underweight and suffered from malnutrition. Title I funds purchased lunches and extra milk. A nurse-social worker was employed to work with parents, teachers, and administrators in pinpointing specific health needs.

In addition, a reading program was developed. Music appreciation and physical education courses were established. Business education and office occupations became part of the high school curriculum to give the pupils income-producing skills for use later in life.

Extra teachers reduced the pupil-teacher ratio, and teacher aides were employed.

MISSOURI

TITLE I PROVIDED	$23,919,082
FOR	253,637 children
FROM	539 school districts
Director, Title I, ESEA	John W. Alberty

In Missouri, during the second year of Title I:

- There was a 5.8 percent dropout rate in a sample of 82 Title I schools compared with a 6.2 dropout rate in 68 Title I schools in 1965-66.
- Approximately 57 percent of 8,607 students from 83 Title I high schools continued their education after graduation. This compares with 56 percent of 7,605 students from 73 Title I high schools in 1965.
- A sampling of 91 school districts revealed 18 had substantial parental participation in Title I programs, a gain of 7.2 percent over 1965-66, when a sample of 69 districts showed 8 districts with heavy parent participation.
- A sampling of 46 school districts representing a total of 16,062 students in grades 1 through 12 showed they had achieved 7 months' progress in reading for 9 months of instruction—about the same growth rate as 1965-66.

Smithville: Class Reduction and Ability Sectioning

Additional staff was employed and facilities were provided to reduce class size.

Teachers, pupils, and parents were well pleased with a new method of sectioning according to ability. Teachers saw a marked improvement in attitudes of seventh graders—but, interestingly enough, not for eighth graders. Among all students, disciplinary problems decreased. In addition, remedial reading instruction was inaugurated; art was added to the curriculum; library services were expanded.

St. Louis: Opportunity High School

Socially maladjusted and educationally deficient children from the impoverished areas of the inner city were placed in a special high school emphasizing basic skills, citizenship training, and motivation to stay in school. The Opportunity High School provided a second and perhaps last chance for youth who were not able to adjust to the regular secondary school program. During 1966-67, it served 128 pupils at a cost of $277 per pupil.

MONTANA

TITLE I PROVIDED	$3,291,805
FOR	20,775 children
INCLUDING	1,851 nonpublic school children 604 not enrolled in any school 840 in State institutions
FROM	508 out of 873 school districts
Director, Division of Services Development	Ralph S. Hay

During 1966-67 in Montana:

- The dropout rate in Title I public schools fell 5 percent below the previous year.

- There was a 2 percent increase in Title I high school graduates continuing their education.

Wolf Point: Opportunity Services

This project, which included a group of Indian youngsters, was a comprehensive program of special instruction for slow learners. It featured remedial reading, social and health services, counseling, and after-school and weekend tutoring. Field trips enlarged the youngsters' learning experiences, and a summer recreation program enabled many to develop skills in sports and an appreciation of physical fitness. Grooming and sewing courses were offered junior high girls. A social worker established rapport between school and home.

Billings: Preschool and Handicapped Program

Jointly funded by OEO and Title I, this project in the Billings elementary schools—both public and nonpublic—focused on preschool and handicapped children. Well-qualified personnel furnished physical education and special education services. School psychologists and social workers provided behavior observation, parent counseling, and assistance in specialized testing and screening services.

NEBRASKA

TITLE I PROVIDED	$5,522,165
FOR	45,602 children
INCLUDING	5,423 nonpublic school children
FROM	293 towns
Director of Title I, ESEA	Robert E. Dyke

Six percent fewer pupils dropped out of Title I schools in 1966-67 than the previous year. About 57 percent of the Title I high school graduates went on for further education. Reading achievement, based on a 2,600-pupil sample, was 8.7 months for the year.

Albion: Office Occupations Course

Sponsored by Title I and the Boone County Educational Cooperative, the course was held each Saturday throughout the school year. It was designed to teach pupils good grooming, the operation of a variety of office machines, and the general knowledge of office practice.

Lincoln: Four-Part Program

The first three parts—inservice training, audio-visual laboratory and a diagnostic center—were designed to help teachers be more effective with deprived children. The fourth part was a summer program.

Through the inservice course, teachers gained a better understanding of speech and hearing problems that deter language development. The audio-visual laboratory helped teachers learn how to use equipment to enhance learning. The diagnostic centers served children referred for speech, hearing, reading, and psychological services. Center staff members then conferred professionally with teachers and parents to develop remedial plans to help the children.

NEVADA

TITLE I PROVIDED	$985,902
FOR	6,312 children
INCLUDING	130 nonpublic school children
FROM	13 out of 17 school districts
Director, Federal Relations and Programs	James Kiley

During 1966-67, Title I children in reading programs in Nevada gained an average of 1.4 school years for a school year of instruction. Based on a sample of pupil and teacher questionnaires, 764 pupils also gained substantial improvement in self-concept; 742 pupils showed some improvement; 64 made little or no progress. All these children were from poverty-stricken homes.

Ormsby County: Summer Enrichment Program

This program focused on natural science and western Nevada history. Approximately 83 youngsters in grades 4 through 9 participated in a 4-week summer enrichment program. The classrooms were the mountain meadows, lakes, rivers, and historic sites of western Nevada.

Elko County: Evening Center for Students and Parents

About 185 children and their parents enjoyed special music and arts programs, organized recreation, counseling services, library services, and motion pictures in educational programs held three evenings a week. The site of this project was the small isolated Duck Valley Indian Reservation on the Nevada-Idaho border. Such opportunities are normally not available to residents of this community; the nearest movie theater is 90 miles away.

NEW HAMPSHIRE

TITLE I PROVIDED	$1,392,513
FOR	10,712 children
INCLUDING	2,125 nonpublic school children
FROM	140 out of 163 eligible school districts
Director of Title I, ESEA	William C. Sterling

About 75 percent of all Title I projects were designed to provide deprived children with remedial and developmental reading programs. The problem seemed insurmountable when the school year began due to the lack of funds and qualified personnel. The State therefore inaugurated inservice courses to train instructors in the latest techniques in teaching reading and improve understanding of the problems of the disadvantaged child served by Title I. The problem was partially alleviated by extending staff time in school. Title I programs were scheduled after 3 p.m. daily, on Saturdays and during the summer. Teacher-time was shared between school districts, and parents of Title I children served as volunteers or paid classroom aides.

Conway: Speech Therapy

Since it was impossible to secure the services of a specialist in speech therapy for 24 children sorely needing this help during the school year, a group of seven cooperating districts decided to use a portion of Title I funds to send these youngsters to a YMCA summer camp. This program provided the services of a certified and experienced speech therapist on a one-to-one ratio or in small groups.

Milford: Inservice Training Program

A group of cooperating school districts instituted a 3-year, three-phase inservice training program for staff members. After studying the existing weaknesses in the curriculum, the participants developed a new and differentiated curriculum guide.

NEW JERSEY

TITLE I PROVIDED	$24,213,383
FOR	122,000 children
INCLUDING	19,000 nonpublic school children
FROM	535 school districts
Coordinator, Title I, ESEA	John R. Flynn

A sampling of 227 school districts showed that 194 operated 766 reading projects in various grades spanning prekindergarten to the twelfth.

During 1966-67, the teachers reported: 238 reading projects as a "substantial success"; 338, "some success"; and 190, "little or no progress."

The graduates of Title I high schools who continued their education increased from 55.2 percent in 1965-66 to 57.1 percent in 1966-67.

Bridgewater-Raritan: Language Arts

This project featured the formation of a children's theater group. Through the production of a film entitled "The Day the Martians Landed in the School Yard," the children benefited three ways: in reading, cultural enrichment, and increased knowledge of creative arts.

Union City: English-as-a-Second Language

Directed mainly at the non-English speaking population, this program coupled a vigorous English program with counseling services. The strength of the project lay in its acceptance of the native culture of these children, most of whom came from Puerto Rico.

Newark: Summer Camping Program

The camping program gave over 2,600 inner-city children an opportunity to spend at least

2 weeks in an active, culturally stimulating, healthful, and integrated environment, where they gained the benefits of close association with boys and girls from all racial and socioeconomic backgrounds.

NEW MEXICO

TITLE I PROVIDED	$10,027,182
FOR	56,127 children
INCLUDING	4,614 nonpublic school children
FROM	89 school districts
Chairman, Title I, ESEA Services	Dr. Mildred K. Fitzpatrick

New Mexico reports the following Title I highlights for 1966-67:

- About 1,500 children of some 31,500 disadvantaged youngsters in reading programs moved out of the lower quarter.
- Title I high schools showed a 4.5 percent increase in students continuing their education after graduation.
- The dropout rate fell 2 percent in grades 9 through 12 between 1965-66 and 1966-67.

Mora, San Miguel and Guadalupe Counties: Dental Program

This cooperative dental program provided treatment and training for 998 underprivileged children in three depressed counties at a total cost of $42,500.

Appointments were initially made for all disadvantaged youngsters in the area; more than 1,000 recall visits were necessary. According to the teachers, dental care helped raise pupil attendance and, indirectly, achievement. For example, one boy with a double row of lower teeth would not previously go to school. He's been there every day since receiving necessary treatment.

Central: Translation of Navajo Reading Materials

Navajo legends and stories were translated and published in a series of preprimers and readers for Navajo youngsters in this northwestern New Mexico town. Each of the stories was handed down by the parents of these children and illustrated by a Navajo artist. Thousands of Indian children are expected to enjoy these publications in the years ahead.

NEW YORK

TITLE I PROVIDED	$114,811,439
FOR	738,474 children
INCLUDING	90,789 nonpublic school children
FROM	743 school districts
Coordinator of Title I, ESEA	Dr. Irving Ratchick

- In 1966-67, there were 181,000 high school graduates from school districts that received $200,000 or more in Title I funds as compared with 171,147 high school graduates in the same selected districts in 1965-66.
- The average daily enrollment in school districts that received $200,000 or more in Title I funds rose from 1,450,317 in 1965-66 to 1,499,090 while the average daily attendance rose from 1,285,274 to 1,333,876 in the same districts.

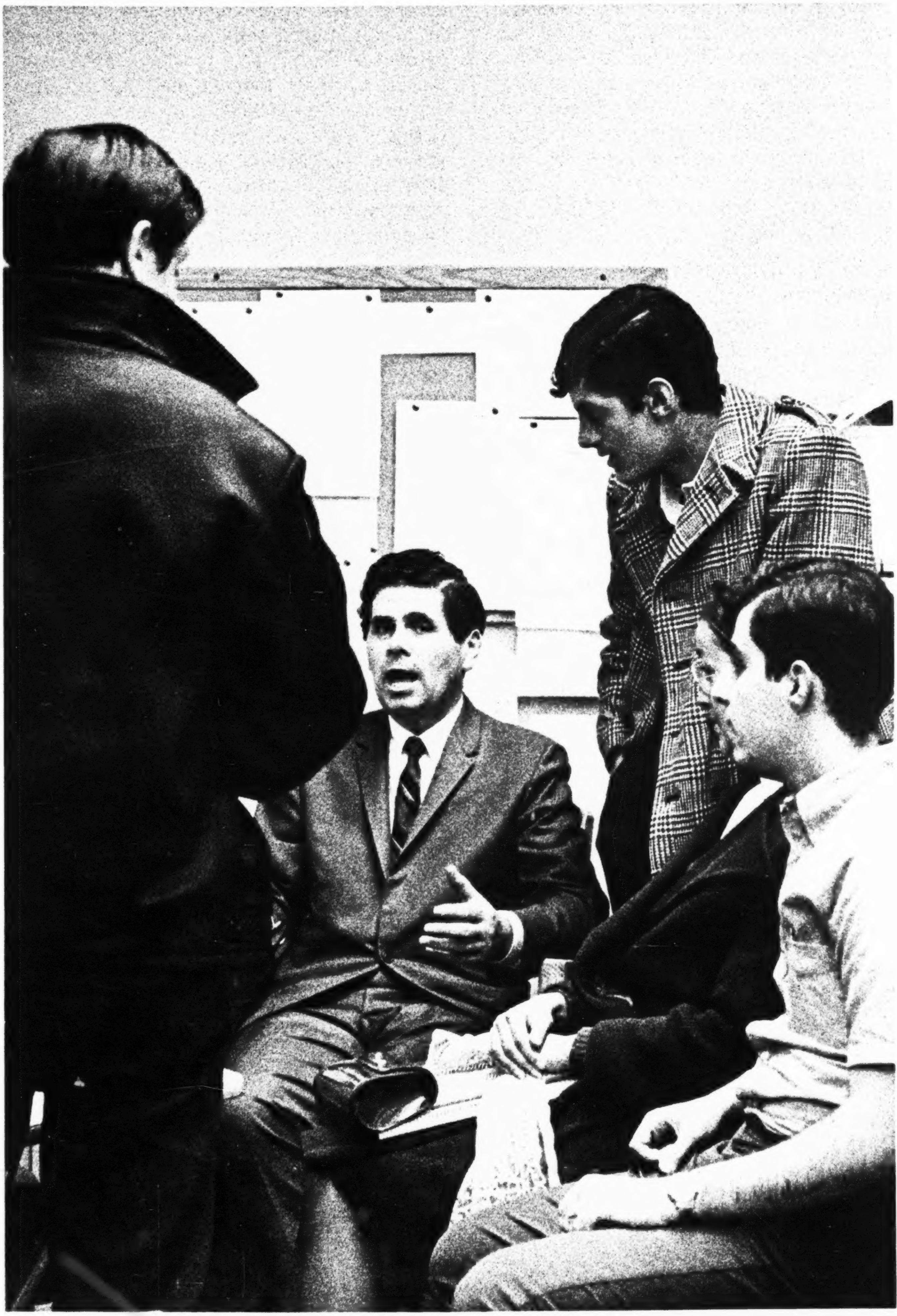
Buffalo: Project Horizon

A series of 90 half-hour television shows was designed primarily to overcome cultural deprivation of children in grades kindergarten through 3. These programs were directly intended for 15,278 children in both public and nonpublic schools, but additional thousands of viewers enjoyed the programs. The staff funded under Title I included a project administrator, a secretary, actor-narrator, producer-director, production assistant, graphics artist, a puppeteer, six teacher-consultants, and other technical personnel regularly employed by the TV station.

Project Horizon received the 1967 Ohio State Award from the Institute of Education by Radio-Television.

Nanuet: Prescriptive Clinic for Preschool and Kindergarten Children

The accent here was on diagnosing and correcting behavioral problems so that disadvantaged youngsters would have a better chance



of success in school. Seventy-one children, including 24 from the St. Agatha Home for Children, participated. The approach was twofold: (1) a preschool experience emphasizing readiness for kindergarten; (2) a kindergarten for those having difficulties in school adjustment. This program was selected as exemplary in content and implementation by the State Education Department's Bureau of Early Childhood and Parent Education.

New York City: College Discovery and Development

Fourteen college professors served as part-time curriculum consultants in this program designed to prepare disadvantaged youngsters of high school age to enter college. Classes were limited to 18 children. The 1966 program included 475 tenth graders; in 1965, about 580 participated. Records show that 80 percent of the latter went on to the twelfth grade and were achieving at a high level. Those completing the program are guaranteed admission to the City University.

NORTH CAROLINA

TITLE I PROVIDED	$46,184,079
FOR	352,198 children
INCLUDING	1,438 nonpublic school children
FROM	168 school districts
Coordinator, Title I, ESEA	Joseph Johnston

Educationally deprived children who participated in Title I projects in 1966-67 began to show some progress in academic achievement. While reading improvement as measured by standardized tests was not substantial, "an important beginning was made in that direction." About 10 percent of the Title I pupils moved from the lowest quarter during the year. Approximately 8 percent rose from the lower half of the class.

Test results also show that 6 percent of the students climbed from the lowest quarter in mathematics achievement. At the same time, about 8 percent moved up from the lower half of the achievement scale.

Title I in addition provided the first sizable effort to establish summer preschool programs for disadvantaged children. Approximately 11 percent of the projects provided these opportunities, and 9 percent had kindergartens during the regular academic year.

During the summer of 1967, about 87 percent of the school districts had one or more Title I activities in operation. Prior to Title I, there were few, if any, summer educational activities for educationally deprived children.

Greensboro: Mathematics Laboratory

A laboratory for "reluctant learners" brought reality to the abstracts of mathematics for 90 pupils who had failed the subject one or more times. The problems presented for the youngsters to solve were taken from local businesses in the community with which they were already familiar. The students worked out the solutions through the use of flow charts, then computed the answers themselves, and checked them on calculators. Follow-up testing revealed that many participants advanced as much as 3 years in mathematics skills.

NORTH DAKOTA

TITLE I PROVIDED	$4,146,397
FOR	27,462 children
INCLUDING	2,091 nonpublic school children
IN	276 projects
Coordinator, Title I, ESEA	Warren Pederson

North Dakota reported:

- The dropout rate fell in Title I schools to 2 percent in 1966-67 as compared with 3 percent in 1965-66.
- 72 percent of the students from high schools which had a third or more Title I participants continued their education after graduation in 1967 as compared with 71.3 percent in 1966.
- Average daily attendance in schools which had a third or more Title I pupils reported an overall statewide average of 97 percent in 1965-66 as compared with 96 percent for all schools in the State in 1966-67.
- A sampling composed of 2,451 pupils showed 937 in the lowest quarter on an

achievement test when the school year began. In the spring, tests revealed that 300 of the students had moved into the higher quarters.

Grand Forks No. 1: Language Arts

The program focused on educationally deprived children in the lower grades. Special reading teachers worked with the regular classroom teachers in five public schools and two parochial schools. They planned the programs, diagnosed the problems of individual children, and offered prescriptive type teaching activities.

The second part of the program involved development of library facilities in four of the seven schools. The library personnel worked with the reading teachers to provide special material for the pupils. The facilities were also available to the children from the other participating public school and the parochial schools.

OHIO

TITLE I PROVIDED	$35,126,949
FOR	214,825 children
INCLUDING	13,860 nonpublic school children
FROM	649 school districts
Director, Division of Federal Assistance	Raymond A. Horn

More intensive services and activities were concentrated on fewer children in 1966-67 to enhance their chances for success; more teachers sharpened their communication skills through special training courses so they could reach the children; and more teacher aides entered classrooms to give teachers more time to teach. The results showed:

- The dropout rate fell to 3.2 percent in 1966-67 from 3.4 percent in 1965-66.
- Title I high school graduates continuing their education rose to 43.2 percent in 1966-67 as compared with 42.5 percent in 1965-66.
- 169 school districts reported "top success" in improving pupil attitudes toward school.
- There was a 10 percent decrease in the number of Title I students whose scores on reading tests fell in the lowest quarter, based on the national norm.
- Parents spent 662,671 hours involved in activities related to Title I.

Springfield City: Future Unlimited

A two-phase "umbrella" project covering many educational activities operated through the school year and summer in this industrial city of 83,000 persons. Activities included cultural and recreational enrichment opportunities, field trips, language arts instruction, medical and dental services, and breakfasts. Team teaching proved to be an effective technique, especially during the summer.

Tiffin: An Outdoor Laboratory

Science, conservation, and arts and crafts instruction motivated interest in school-type activities and improved language arts skills. Outdoor classrooms were used in this program conducted by a small city system in a predominantly rural area. Evaluation indicated that all participants made some improvement; many showed marked improvement.

OKLAHOMA

TITLE I PROVIDED	$17,288,784
FOR	163,057 children
INCLUDING	780 nonpublic school children
FROM	879 school districts
Director of Title I, ESEA	Jack L. Taylor

Title I funds supported 1,848 classroom teachers, 395 counselors, nurses, physicians, dentists, social workers, psychologists, and librarians; and 1,446 teacher aides and clerical personnel during 1966-67. The results showed that:

- Average daily attendance improved 20 percent.
- The schools had 13 percent fewer discipline problems.
- At least 70 percent of the schools in the State involved parents in Title I programs.
- 70 percent of the Title I students continued

into higher education—an 8 percent gain over 1965-66.

- 6,797 pupils dropped out of school in 1966-67 as compared with 7,485 dropouts in 1965-66.
- A sampling of 14,764 Title I pupils in 47 school districts averaged at the 30th percentile on achievement pretests and at the 37th percentile on posttests.

Chickasha: Office Education

The high school, through an expanded business education program made possible by Title I, had 13 students enrolled in a special vocational program. Besides regular classroom instruction, pupils received 2 hours of on-the-job training or a laboratory session in the use of business office equipment.

The idea was to train girls so they may secure employment after graduation. The course also helped college-bound students who would have to work their way through college. Almost all of the previous year's graduates worked either full or parttime.

Noble County: Cooperative Nurse Program

Six schools in Noble County set up a health program using Title I money. The program provided complete physical exams. It continued into the summer with home visits by the nurse, who advised medical and dental check-ups, and then followed-up to see if treatment had been completed or if further assistance were needed.

OREGON

TITLE I PROVIDED	$7,527,202
FOR	72,796 children
INCLUDING	2,550 nonpublic school children
FROM	320 school districts
Coordinator, ESEA, Title I	Dale Skewis

Oregon pupils finished the year with reading test results which averaged just above the 50th percentile on national norm.

In a 20 percent sample of all Title I pupils:

- Reading test findings in the fall of 1966 showed the average score to be at the 40th percentile. Subsequent tests in the late spring of 1967 placed the average score at the 51st percentile.
- Overall achievement test data showed the pupils with a pretest mean at the 44th percentile during the fall of '66 and a posttest mean at the 46th percentile in the spring of '67.

A 20 percent sample of grades 8 through 12 in Title I schools revealed the dropout rate was 15.2 percent. This compares with a similar sample in non-Title I schools which revealed a dropout rate of 16.4 percent.

Bend: Dropout Program

At Bend Junior High School, boys and girls considered potential dropouts were involved in prevocational activities which resulted in a better adjustment to the school setting and increased academic achievement.

The boys received training and experience in drafting, woodworking, and working with small gasoline engines. The girls' program included instruction for nursing home aides, in cleaning techniques, child care, kitchen management, food and nutrition, and laundry activities.

Hillcrest State School for Girls: Cultural Project

One of the more effective projects in Oregon provided cultural experiences for girls at the Hillcrest State School for Girls, a correctional institution. Through Title I, the girls were able to participate in field trips, go to professional stage plays, eat dinner out, and stage campus cultural programs. According to the school's evaluation, the project gave the girls a better self-image and potential adjustment to society as well as increased academic achievement.

PENNSYLVANIA

TITLE I PROVIDED	$48,634,003
FOR	325,000 children
INCLUDING	65,000 nonpublic school children
FROM	694 school districts
Coordinator of Title I, ESEA	Herbert Edwards

Title I did "a man-sized job" of helping educationally deprived children in Pennsylvania during 1966-67.

- Attendance in Title I schools was up better than 3 percent.
- The percentage of dropouts decreased 5 percent in Title I schools.
- There was a 6 percent increase in students who continued their education after graduating from high schools with a third or more Title I students.
- Results of an Iowa Basic Skills test on a selected sample of 11,000 Title I children in grades 3 through 6 showed an average growth of 7.5 months for 9 months' instruction. The anticipated growth in Pennsylvania was 5.2 months. Gates Reading Tests on 88,000 Title I children in grades 3 through 6 showed the children had gained 8.8 months' growth in reading for 9 months' instruction. The State's major cities were included in both samples.

Philadelphia: Comprehensive Program

This $11,537,387 program in 256 schools was aimed at 60,000 culturally and educationally deprived children from kindergarten through grade 12. It involved 3,000 teachers and 25 projects, and included training for teachers and teacher aides so they could better understand and communicate with the disadvantaged child.

One important phase was a cooperative effort of the public and nonpublic schools to find more relevant curriculums for the city's disadvantaged children. This was a 6 weeks' summer project for 100 students, chosen to represent diversity of racial, economic, and educational background. They were exposed to courses in drama, communications, and urban affairs.

Mount Lebanon: Counseling and the 3 R's

The program for 358 children in 3 schools provided: (1) counseling at each attendance area center for staff members, pupil participants, and parents; (2) diagnosis, testing, and therapy through various forms of guidance; (3) additional developmental reading and arithmetic in each center and in the daily school program; (4) speech therapy services; (5) study centers including libraries staffed with qualified personnel providing small group and individual guidance.

RHODE ISLAND

TITLE I PROVIDED	$3,665,835
FOR	17,707 children
INCLUDING	3,589 nonpublic school children
FROM	39 out of 40 school districts
Coordinator of Title I, ESEA	Edward T. Costa

A more realistic understanding of the educational needs of culturally disadvantaged children seems to be resulting in increased ability to help them. Reported Title I highlights from Rhode Island for 1966-67 include:

Achievement tests given a 1,325 sample of Title I pupils showed that 24 percent of those who scored in the lowest quarter (according to the national norm) at the start of the school year moved up at the end of the year. Addition of approximately 300 aides enabled more individual instruction for the children and freed teachers from nonteaching chores in 1966-67. The number of reading specialists rose from 54 to 427.

Nonpublic school participation increased from 2,847 to 3,589 children.

Providence: Project "Gird"

"Gird"—a 9-week summer program at Providence College—was aimed at providing guidance, instructional services, recreation activities, and diagnostic services for handicapped, mentally retarded, and emotionally disturbed children in the lower grades. The problems of the children were pinpointed and curriculums designed to meet their individual needs. Through a team approach involving professional and nonprofessional personnel (including more than 30 ghetto parents who worked as aides), many of the children returned to school in the fall of 1967 better able to cope with their adjustment difficulties.

SOUTH CAROLINA

TITLE I PROVIDED	$21,514,677
FOR	325,000 children
FROM	106 school districts
Coordinator of Title I, ESEA	Gary Ashley

In 1966-67, about 34 percent of the Title I high school graduates continued their education. This compares with 26.81 percent in 1965-66. Also during 1966-67:

- The average Title I elementary class size decreased from 31 pupils to 27 pupils.
- The average Title I secondary class size decreased from 23 pupils to 19 pupils, an average reduction of almost 4 pupils per class.
- 97 out of 103 districts reported poor performances by Title I children on standardized tests. A sampling of Title I high schools showed that 57 percent of the pupils below the first quarter scored below the 5th percentile on language tests.
- 191,870 students received free lunches under Title I.

Richland: Remedial Reading

As a possible help for students with reading problems, a nurse screened students for visual or hearing defects. A reading director and three teaching-consultants were employed. Consultants worked with teachers and students 4 days a week. A reading laboratory was established where 1 day a week was devoted to planning and evaluating programs and working with individual students.

Dillon: Vocational Opportunities

This program attacked the problem of high school graduates who in the past have had trouble finding employment. Vocational training, including experience in an automobile mechanics shop, became available under Title I. Eight of the participants entered college; the others found jobs.

SOUTH DAKOTA

TITLE I PROVIDED	$5,482,447
FOR	40,361 children
INCLUDING	4,166 nonpublic school children
FROM	617 school districts
Director, Title I, ESEA	Lyndon M. Loken

South Dakota's State Department of Education reports that during 1966-67:

- The Title I dropout rate in grades 9 through 12 remained at 2.7 percent even though enrollment rose from 24,947 to 28,284 pupils in the past year.
- A selected sample of 117 Title I pupils in the third and sixth grades showed 52 pupils in the lowest quarter at the start of the school year but only 24 there at the end of the school year.

Mobridge: Enrichment Program

The focus of this program was on Indian children and delinquent students who were not making satisfactory progress on standardized tests—youngsters who had negative attitudes toward school, poor attendance, and a tendency to dropout. Classroom instruction was designed for an informal atmosphere, with the teacher able to communicate directly with each student in terms of his individual interests and needs.

Over the course of the project, students made a minimum 20-percentile-point increase on standardized pre and posttests. In addition, they showed excellent personal adjustment in school.

TENNESSEE

TITLE I PROVIDED	$29,786,366
FOR	222,379 children
INCLUDING	2,092 nonpublic school children
FROM	151 districts
Coordinator of Title I, ESEA	Ervin H. Thomas

The most spectacular and immediate benefits of Title I were seen in the obvious improvements of the physical welfare of the children. Combined nutritional-health and social-welfare work bettered home-school relations. In addition:

About 5 percent fewer students dropped out in 1966-67 than in 1965-66.

Reading achievement tests showed a median growth of 1.6 years.

All schools reported improvements in student behavior.

Campbell County (Appalachia Region): Ancillary Services

This program dealt with some of the Nation's most poverty-stricken children. Through it, they were the sole beneficiaries of an $86,000 lunch, medical, dental, and clothing program plus enriched instruction in reading, mathematics, and in other areas such as music, art, and physical education.

Memphis City: Ten Projects in 58 Schools

The projects focused on a variety of educational areas, such as comprehensive reading, prekindergarten, elementary guidance and psychological services, vocational education, and special education for mentally and physically handicapped children.

Also included were special training of teachers of reading, inservice teacher training, a summer activities program, and the organizing of a pupil-development data center to provide bases for evaluating Title I programs.

The preschool program involved children who became eligible for first grade in 1967 and who had shown a marked deficiency in readiness for learning. Teachers and aides received 1 week's training prior to the project's start, and they held meetings throughout the year.

TEXAS

TITLE I PROVIDED	$68,886,571
FOR	421,211 children
INCLUDING	10,741 nonpublic school children
	22,848 not attending school
FROM	1,155 school districts
Director, Division of Compensatory Education	R. E. Slayton

In Texas during 1966-67:

- There were 1.7 percent fewer dropouts than in the previous year.
- 2.5 percent more students continued their education after high school.
- 18,833 Title I pupils in grades 1 through 12 took both pre and post reading achievement tests and gained 1.4 years in a 7-month interval.
- 75 percent of the teachers reported a marked improvement in pupil attitude towards school.

El Paso: English-as-a-Second Language

Faced with the language problems of Spanish-speaking children, El Paso developed an effective English-as-a-second language program for grades 1 and 2. The regular classroom teacher, with assistance from an aide, provided instruction in small groups and with individuals. Workbooks and audio-visual materials were used. Pretest of the pupils as a group showed them not ready for formal training in reading. Posttests after the special instruction revealed they had progressed to readiness. A random sampling of grade 2 pupils who took the Gates Primary Reading Test showed that they improved 8 months during the program.

Houston: Focus on Achievement

This program included a cluster of academic activities supported by needed ancillary services. The reading activity, in which instruction was given in a special nongraded classroom, produced positive changes. Tests of a random sample of students in the fifth and seventh grades showed reading improvement scores averaging 1.5 year gains during the year-long program.

UTAH

TITLE I PROVIDED	$3,042,185
FOR	17,609 children
FROM	all 399 school districts
Specialist, Title I, ESEA	N. Craig Kennington

Utah school districts reported more than 6,000 of 10,000 elementary school children who received special reading instruction made "substantial progress" in 1966-67.

"Substantial progress" here means all those children who gained about 7.5 months growth or more during 1966-67, as indicated by a sample of 1,000 children on standardized tests.

The remaining 4,000 children scored between 2.6 and 7.4 months reading growth during

1966-67, the majority being closer to the 7.4 mark.

San Juan School District: Language Program

Portions of the Navajo Indian reservation lie within this school district, and the school population exhibited a variety of language, social, and economic differences. In seeking to narrow these gaps, Title I funds were used for special reading classes, teacher aides, physical education, fine and industrial arts, training in home economics, and school lunches. Because of this program, there has been a significant increase in the number of Indian children attending school.

VERMONT

TITLE I PROVIDED	$1,664,962
FOR	12,437 children
INCLUDING	603 in State institutions
FROM	57 school districts
Coordinator of Title I, ESEA	Walter D. Gallagher

Major successes in the Vermont Title I program were:

- In 54 high schools, the average dropout rate in grades 9 through 12 fell from 3.97 to 2.18 percent between 1965 and 1967.
- Pupils showed an average reading gain of 9 months in an 8-month period on the basis of limited test data. In many cases, pupils gained as much as 2 years in a single school year.
- 55 percent of those who took the California Test of Personality showed an improvement in social adjustment both in and out of school.

Windsor Central Supervisory Union, Woodstock: Remedial and Developmental Reading Program

A team of reading specialists, aided by student tutors from nearby Dartmouth College, helped 94 early primary school pupils to improve their reading and develop a favorable outlook toward school.

A reading supervisor mapped individually tailored reading programs for each pupil. The program was implemented by a general classroom teacher and a parttime reading instructor. The Dartmouth students provided concentrated tutoring in reading and other subjects.

VIRGINIA

TITLE I PROVIDED	$24,226,749
FOR	150,000 children
FROM	122 counties, towns and cities
Coordinator of Title I, ESEA	Robert W. Sparks

Standardized tests indicate a 1.1-year increase in achievement for 1 year's study, including summer instruction, according to a sampling of pupils in 14 representative school districts. The dropout rate in Title I schools fell to 3 percent from 4.6 percent in 1965-66. 33 percent of the students from schools that had a third or more Title I students continued their schooling after graduation in 1966-67. This compares with 30 percent in 1965-66 and only 23 percent in 1964-65.

Arlington County: Remedial English for Children With Dialect Problems

English-as-a-second language was taught to children who speak dialects that vary substantially from formal classroom English. The project aimed to help the students function better in school without sacrificing their nonstandard dialects. A highly sophisticated electronic auditory training system was used. It compresses speech in time, changes the pitch spectrum, and reduces outside noise to prerecorded tapes.

Petersburg: Academic, Cultural and Social Enrichment

This was a two-phase project, providing tutoring for children needing intensive work in reading and a general emphasis for those whose problems were not so acute. A reading center served as the hub of instruction. In September 1966, pretest scores of eighth graders revealed that 92.3 percent of 150 pupils were reading below the eighth grade level as compared with 60.6 percent on posttest. Similarly, pretest average scores revealed that 7.7 percent were reading on or above grade level as compared with posttest averages of 39.4 percent at this level.

WASHINGTON

TITLE I PROVIDED	$10,709,524
FOR	120,000 children
FROM	310 school districts
Program Coordinator Title I, ESEA	Richard Boyd

The focus of the Title I effort in Washington has been in reading. A total of 215 projects involved 43,220 educationally deprived children in remedial and small group instruction. Sixty-three percent of the 215 directors reported average reading achievement of students in their projects to be 1 year per year of instruction. Most of the others showed gains of more than 0.7 years.

The 1966-67 year had 449 fewer primary school dropouts in Title I schools than the previous year, but Title I secondary schools reported an increase of 1,601 dropouts over the 1965-66 school year. The apparent increase may be due to a better reporting system in 1967.

Pasco District No. 1: Special Program for Nonachievers in Language Arts

About 30 Negro children in McLaughlin Junior High, a predominantly Negro school, spent 2 hours a day in nongraded block instruction. The prime objective was to develop in these children a positive self-image through individualized instruction in language skills—reading, speaking, and listening. An informal atmosphere prevailed. Only extremely skilled teachers were employed; they later worked closely with the regular teachers who had the children the remainder of the day.

Supporting services included health and counseling.

Bremerton: Junior Primary Readiness Program

Children in classes of 15 or fewer, received individualized attention to improve their readiness for the regular school program. Special teachers and teacher aides provided a variety of experiences both within and outside the classroom. Snacks and health services were included; the parents were actively involved.

WEST VIRGINIA

TITLE I PROVIDED	$14,923,368
FOR	105,591 children
INCLUDING	978 nonpublic school children
FROM	55 school districts
Coordinator of Title I, ESEA	Virgil H. Stewart

Title I pupils this year came close to achieving a month's reading progress for a month's instruction. A 25 percent sampling showed an average increase of 6.5 months for the 7 months between pre and posttests.

In addition:

- 3 percent more graduates of Title I schools continued their education in 1966-67 than a year earlier.
- The dropout rate in Title I schools rose slightly (0.7 percent) but, at the same time, so did the dropout rate in non-Title I schools (0.2 percent).

Wierton: Cultural Resource Centers

Hancock County is a small county with a limited Title I allocation. The county concentrated on one program—to reduce the severe cultural deprivation of a limited number of children.

Through six cultural resource centers, the project gave disadvantaged children a functional familiarity with the furnishings and services of the average home. In these centers, youngsters from low-income homes became acquainted with books, magazines, phonographs, photographs, paintings, sculpture, and films. Equipment such as TV receivers, cameras, projectors, and tape recorders also were available and used.

Wheeling: Cooperative Project

This Ohio County program is unique in that it was planned and implemented through the coordinated efforts of public and nonpublic school staffs. Of the 1,125 children participating, 475 were nonpublic school children. The program itself concentrated on remedial reading, special education, and music.

WISCONSIN

TITLE I PROVIDED	$14,931,330
FOR	122,779 children
INCLUDING	23,458 nonpublic school children
Administrator of Title I, ESEA	Frank N. Brown

Reading readiness and improvement dominated Wisconsin's Title I activities in 1966-67. Some 80,140 public and nonpublic school children participated in the reading programs. They account for 65 percent of State's Title I children.

Over a 9-month period, a sampling of second, fourth, and sixth grade pupils from 88 percent of the projects showed a yearly average gain in reading of 1.5 grades.

Marshfield: Outdoor Education

This summer program acquainted educationally disadvantaged children with good conservation practices and procedures. About 150 public and 110 nonpublic school children participated—40 at a time. Activities fell into four major areas: (1) nature study, (2) social development, (3) health and safety, (4) outdoor skills and recreation.

Shawano: Preschool Program

A fulltime summer preschool program, funded by Title I, followed a limited OEO program for 4 year olds in 1966. It was so successful that an 11-month program for 74 children was conducted in 1967. These youngsters then enrolled in kindergarten. The positive effects of their participation in the preschool program has caused school officials to upgrade the kindergarten instruction to meet their needs and interests.

WYOMING

TITLE I PROVIDED	$1,466,944
FOR	18,197 children
INCLUDING	594 nonpublic school children
FROM	52 school districts
Director, Title I, ESEA	Merle V. Chase

Wyoming reports these trends of Statewide significance in 1966-67:

- All 65 projects in the State reported definite improvement in student attitude and interest toward school. This was based on surveys of parents and ratings by principals and teachers.
- Six times as many parents were involved in school activities than during the previous year.
- Ten of the 19 nonpublic schools participated in Title I.
- Seven schools which did not accept Title I funds in 1965-66 started Title I projects in 1966-67.
- 80 percent of the disadvantaged children showed at least 7 months' growth in reading.
- 79 percent of all graduates from Title I schools planned to continue their education.

Casper: Individualized Instruction

Two pilot classes of 15 to 20 students—one for slow learners and another for those considered capable underachievers—were established. In all, 597 children participated—97 from nonpublic schools.

According to the teachers, the programs were beneficial because: (1) starting material was easy enough so that the children could achieve the success they so desperately needed; (2) each child received individual attention, including opportunity to work alone with the teacher in his weakest subject; (3) no grades were given; (4) there were numerous field trips.

PUERTO RICO

TITLE I PROVIDED	$18,814,659
FOR	728,858 children
INCLUDING	1,858 nonpublic school children
FROM	80 school districts
Coordinator of Federal Programs	Dr. Marie I. de Jesus Figueroa

Two examples of effective Title I projects in Puerto Rico are:

Catano: Pre-School Summer Program

Many of the youngsters in this program had never seen a crayon. Most had never owned a pet. One little boy had never seen a rocking chair; he became so attached to a small one in the classroom that he spent all his free time in it.

Children such as these gained experiences they may not have gotten at home. They were taught health habits, social graces, and good manners. They were encouraged to ask questions, thereby improving their verbal skills.

Parents were brought into the program. Mothers made small aprons and fathers made shelves, miniatures of home furnishings, and cages for pets.

San Juan: Recreational Cultural Activities

Deprived children for the first time had the opportunity to meet professional musicians, artists, actors, and other theater people and to discuss and enjoy the artists' interpretations of their works. In addition, pupils and many who had dropped out of school returned for instruction in painting, drawing and playing musical instruments.

GUAM

TITLE I PROVIDED	$567,390
FOR	14,442 children
INCLUDING	365 nonpublic school children
FROM	1 school district
Director of Education	L. P. Martin

Tesol (Secondary) Project

In George Washington and John F. Kennedy High Schools, Title I focused on the mastery of English. The activities concentrated on drill, followed by written exercises.

At first, students tended to reject the program. But, as they progressed, their attitudes changed to cooperation, genuine concern, and enjoyment. This 10-month experience increased the students' ability to comprehend oral English from 10 to 20 percent; in a few cases, as much as 30 percent.

VIRGIN ISLANDS

TITLE I PROVIDED	$295,042
FOR	673 children
FROM	18 schools
Coordinator of Title I, ESEA	John Brown

Since the Virgin Islands operates one school system on three islands—St. Thomas, St. John and St. Croix—it focused its Title I efforts on one pilot project in 1966-67. Each island's schools, however, operated as a single component.

Improvement of Communications Skills

Through the use of electronic consoles, pupils had the opportunity to practice beginning reading skills orally, individually, yet simultaneously.

The pupils heard only themselves and their instructor. All outside interferences were eliminated by head phones, and close supervision was maintained over each pupil's efforts. Students were grouped by their ability, readiness and motivation.

The project was effective in providing closer contacts between the children and the teachers. The students were more vocal, and an appreciable increase in listening spans was noted. There were marked improvements in word pronunciation, word attack, and in the desire to read.

There was a special training period for the teachers before the program began.

TRUST TERRITORIES OF THE PACIFIC ISLANDS, SAIPAN, MARIANA ISLANDS

TITLE I PROVIDED	$726,259
Federal Program Officer	Wallace R. Hall

Nine major languages plus several dialects are spoken in Micronesia. English is the official language of instruction. But one of the basic problems facing educators is to bring the childrens' use of English up to a point that instruction is effective.

Because of the high cost of preparing teaching materials in the vernacular in relation to the small numbers speaking each language, it was not practical to attempt to conduct classes in the various native tongues.

Many projects, therefore, concern the teaching of English as a second language and intensive reading.

Mariana District: English as a Second Language

A controlled experiment in communications skills was set up with two primary control schools and three experimental primary schools.

The control school pupils tested higher on the pre-test and California tests than did students in the three experimental schools. After 8 months of intensive work with the pupils in the experimental schools (the children received individual instruction, repeated oral drills in sentence patterns, and voice intonation), they showed more rapid improvement than those in the control schools.

VI

THE HIDDEN POPULATION

There are Americans whose special problems set them apart as particularly tragic, even among the most deprived of the Nation's poor.

They have always been present in society. But they have only been visible to those who sought them out. They are a hidden population among whose numbers are thousands of children.

They are found in the families of migrant workers whose subsistence depends upon the labor of their children, a labor so demanding that it interferes with their mental and physical growth and denies them the educational opportunities available to other American youngsters.

They are children in institutions, removed from society with the intention that they will receive rehabilitative treatment, but who, all too often, receive only custodial care.

They are the physically and emotionally crippled, the blind, the deaf, the multihandicapped.

And they are the Eskimos and Aleuts on barren lands in Alaska and the Indians on desolate reservations in the Southwest where living conditions are appropriately described as primitive.

With the funding of the Title I amendments late in the 1966-67 school year, Federal educational aid was extended equally to all deprived children—including those who have shared least in the charity and sympathy of society.

MIGRANT CHILDREN

The agricultural migrant child is an educational problem on the move.

He suffers from all of the ills of poverty (an average annual family income that is $1,500 below the poverty line), disease, the worst kind of housing, an inadequate education, cultural isolation, and often a language barrier.

Even a school district with the will and the resources to help him is frustrated by the movement that is a pattern of his life.

Most of the migrant children reside in three major home States—Florida, which supplies workers along the Eastern seaboard; Texas, the source of the main West Coast and Central Plains migrant streams; and California, with its large intrastate migration.

In the home States, the seasonal movement disrupts the normal school schedule and puts a severe time limit on the amount of education a migrant child receives between harvesting trips.

Host States, such as Michigan or New Jersey, suddenly burgeon with an influx of children weeks before the school year ends. They may be present for only 4 or 5 weeks after the start of school in the fall.

Compulsory education laws seldom cover these nonresident children. Many host communities are reluctant to assume the burden of their education for such short periods.

Host States have trouble estimating how many children will come into the school districts. After the youngsters arrive, it is difficult to locate them. The idea of schooling for these children during the harvest season is so new that most parents do not know of its existence.

Children away from their home States face severe language and cultural problems. They may be Negroes who speak with a deep-South dialect that is incomprehensible to white Northern teachers. They may be Mexican-Americans or Puerto Ricans in regions where no one speaks Spanish.

Public Law 89-750, passed in November 1966, amended the Elementary and Secondary Education Act to provide $9,737,847 specifically for the compensatory education of migrant children.

In the first year, funding under the authorization began late—in February 1967. Nevertheless, 44 of the 47 eligible States participated. (Maine and New Hampshire had no programs; Nevada had a program, but under regular Title I.) Most of the money went into summer programs. In all, about 77,000 children benefited.

The plight of the migrant has been known for decades. Programs of assistance, however, are relatively new and many practical problems have not been mastered.

However, even in this first, hasty year, funds were directed towards many of migrant education's underlying problems, some of which depend upon interstate cooperation for solutions.

Some States, for example, Texas—a leader in migrant education—used the money to bolster programs already in effect; to strike out in new directions, such as kindergarten programs; and to initiate programs in communities that had been bypassed because of insufficient State and local funds. Colorado finally was able to implement a migrant education program designed in 1959. In California, Title I money spread migrant education programs from only three or four counties to a total of 66, with 5,412 children participating.

In still other States, Title I money meant the beginning of programs for migrant education.

Needs of the Children

Districts operating migrant schools generally agreed on five most pressing needs of migrant children, all of which can be met by Title I funds:

1. Language training. In the case of West Coast Mexican-Americans, especially, the need is for instruction in English as a second language.
2. Proper health and medical care. State residency requirements often exclude migrants from free community clinics and services.
3. Cultural development. Despite his widespread traveling, the migrant child lives in an extremely limited environment and is ignorant of a great deal that a middle-class child learns by experience.
4. Improvement of self-image. "It would appear that the migrant child's most obvious need is the need to experience success," said the Oregon State evaluation report.
5. Proper nutrition. A survey in one school district in North Carolina revealed that "only one migrant child was fed a balanced breakfast regularly at home and that most children ate irregularly over the weekends." In Kentucky, food was provided in a Title I school after a survey showed that one-third (more than 90) of the migrant children left the camps without breakfast.

Because of these recognized needs, medical services, hot lunches, mid-day snacks, and clothing were among the ancillary benefits provided in nearly all schools.

Academically—language improvement, cultural enrichment, and field trips were basic to most classroom programs. In fact, many areas in the host States concluded that these experiences could be given meaningful treatment in a summer school for migrant pupils while some formal subjects, like mathematics, should be avoided because of the uncertainty of the class make-up.

Staffs

From State to State, the most repeated remark about educating migrant children was "there are no experts in this area." Perhaps this is true, but there are many people who know a great deal about it.

The State of Texas, for example, used Title I money to sponsor a program of teacher exchanges. Twenty-four of its teachers were sent into 18 other States to act as advisers in summer migrant programs financed by Title I.

At the same time, Texas conducted training institutes for teachers, administrators, and nonprofessionals that increased its own manpower pool and were open also to out-of-State teachers. States as far away as Kentucky used Title I money to finance scholarships for teachers who wanted to attend Texas courses.

In all, 42 States had preservice or inservice training programs for migrant education.

The problem of staffing was underscored in the evaluation reports. They stressed individualized instruction, team teaching, and ungraded groupings— techniques which require more teachers and teachers with special training.

The Geneseo project in New York State turned a summer migrant program into a demonstration school. Twenty-one children and 20 teachers participated; time was set aside each day when a child and a teacher could have the exclusive attention of each other.

Language

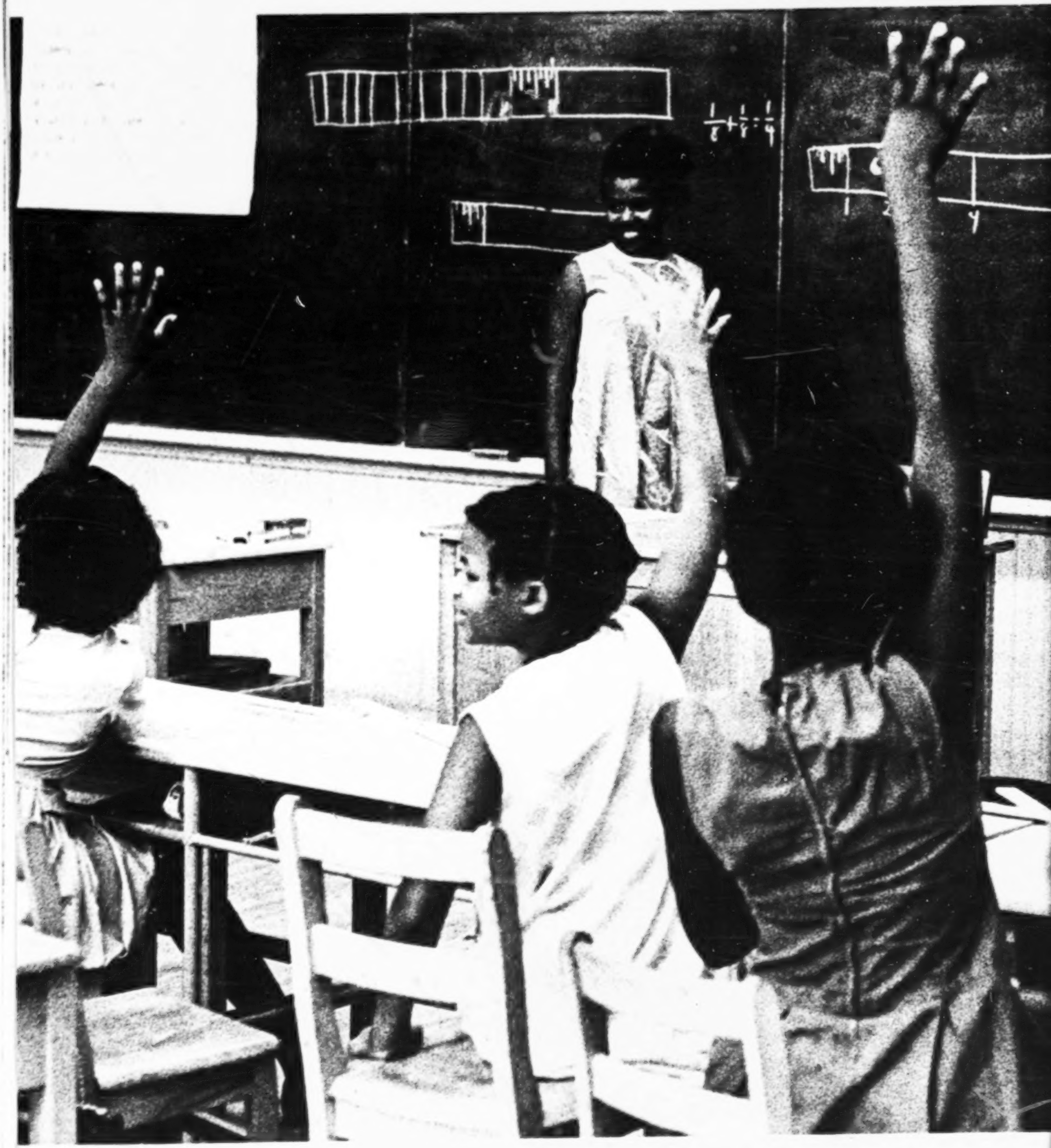
On the West Coast, a severe shortage of bilingual teachers accompanied the general scarcity of teachers. Nevertheless, California embarked on a program to teach English to 3,084 children (2,476 in the first 6 grades and 608 in grades 7 through 12). The State employed 250 bilingual classroom aides to cope with the language barrier.

Oklahoma set up an inservice workshop to teach conversational Spanish vocabulary to teachers.

In Texas, the use of Spanish has heretofore been forbidden in classroom instruction. This year, however, it was being encouraged as necessary for more efficient instruction in English. In McAllen, the teaching of English as a second language was conducted as a demonstration project to serve as a model for bilingual programs throughout the State.

Teacher Aides

In migrant education, teacher aides help relieve the teacher shortage, help overcome language barriers, provide a contact with the migrant families, and stimulate interest in migrant education.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1
2
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Around the country, more than 2,000 aides were employed. California alone employed 319. Migrant mothers used as aides helped reassure parents who were reluctant to let their children go off in buses to strange communities.

One of the best aide programs was California's Mini-Corps, designed to recruit and train future teachers. College students were enrolled in the Corps to interest them in migrant education. Guided somewhat by patterns established by the Peace Corps, many of the Mini-Corpsmen lived in migrant camps during the summer and acquired first-hand experience with that life.

Flexibility

Some migrants make a single move each year from home to a work camp where they spend the entire summer in the fields. Others move from camp to camp, drawn by the availability of work.

Migrant schools, therefore, must be ingeniously flexible in every detail of their programs. Arizona developed a unit-type, no-textbook approach in a 6-week summer project involving 40 teachers, 45 aides, and 382 pupils. Each child worked on his own resource book. In effect, no one enrolled late; for each, school opened the day he arrived. Even equipment and materials were adapted. In Michigan, the migrant coordinator employed bilingual drivers for two mobile libraries which provided special materials to 32 summer projects in six migrant regions in the State.

Schools must compete with the fields for the time of migrant children old enough to work. There were many attempts to accommodate scheduling to this fact of migrant life. The Almond project in Wisconsin held remedial reading classes and other special courses in the evening. Some programs had nurseries financed by local funds or other money to care for babies so that teenaged babysitters would be free to come to school.

Transfer of Records

The Office of Education is working with States on both coasts, forming interstate cooperative plans for the development of continuous curriculum, State-to-State transfer of health and school records, and evaluation of programs.

Using Title I funds, Florida and five other States tried an experimental system of identification numbers and standardized forms to follow the child as he moves North and to provide information about him for placement purposes in other States. The problem of speeding the transmission of records has not been solved, but several States will use the system during the 1968 summer.

Evaluations

One-half of the participating States administered standardized tests, but noted that they were inappropriate to the programs and the children. Many children could not read English; many could not understand the tests because of the middle-class orientation of the material.

However, a number of States employed standardized tests and reported short-term achievement gains for the children in their programs.

New York used the Wide Range Achievement Test in arithmetic and reading. The numbers of participants in each grade, kindergarten through grade 10, ranged from 8 to 160 in arithmetic and from 9 to 159 in reading. The average pretest score of the prekindergarten, kindergarten, grade 1, and grade 2 child was less than 1 year below the normal group in both reading and arithmetic. In grades 3 and 4, the average migrant child was about 1.5 years lower. The gap between migrant and normal school child continued to widen until, in grade 9, the migrant was at entering grade 6 level in reading and grade 5.3 (5 years and 3 months) in arithmetic. Posttests showed the average migrant summer school pupil gained 0.4 grade equivalent score points (4 months) in less than 2 months. The normal would be 2 months of gain in 2 months of time. In arithmetic the gain was 3 months as compared to a normal average of 2.

In Arizona 52 children, randomly selected, were tested at the beginning and end of a 6-week, all-day summer school project. Although Arizona admits that 6 weeks' time may have been too short to show significant differences, some trends are noticeable. There was an increase in verbal expression over all 7 grades; an increased awareness of grammatical requirements, as indicated by corrections in syntax, pronunciation, and verb tense; a statistically significant improvement in language pattern; and an increase in vocabulary in all grades except grade 6.

In Texas migrant children were tested and their scores compared with those of nonmigrant children of the same backgrounds. Only children who had been in a migrant education program for 3 consecutive years were tested. The nonmigrants attended regular school classes.

If the migrant children entered the program in grade 1, they were 1 month ahead in arithmetic and 3 months ahead in paragraph meaning, as measured against migrants who entered the program in the 3rd year. If they began the program in grade 4, by the end of grade 6 they were a year ahead in paragraph meaning and 7 months ahead in arithmetic. The greater gains of migrant children who had been in programs for more than 1 year appeared to indicate that the Texas program had a cumulative effect.

In addition to standardized tests, many States used teacher-developed tests for evaluations. "All evaluation must by necessity be subjective, but experienced teachers using teacher-constructed tests report significant gains in all areas of instruction," the Colorado report stated.

Accomplishments

With the assistance of Title I funds, 26 States initiated migrant education programs and 14 States extended existing programs.

Attendance was high and consistent, according to three-fourths of the reports. One program in Iowa had 35 pupils with perfect attendance records in a 7-week schedule and 89 others who had fewer than four absences.

There was general agreement about the acceptance of the program by parents. Michigan reported that a number of parents decided to keep youngsters out of the fields so they could attend school. In Louisiana, parents delayed moving to another area until their children finished school.

Because of Title I grants all States along the migrant stream now have educational programs. This widespread activity makes interstate cooperation a feasible pursuit.

NEGLECTED AND DELINQUENT CHILDREN

Troubled children from troubled backgrounds inhabit institutions. They are children who have been rejected by society—in formal courts—or by their parents. The institution school is taxed with providing these lonely children with experiences and relationships that an outside child can get from a variety of sources—home, parents, family, friends, neighbors, and pets. In the emptier environment of an institution, a school must assume a larger role in the life of a child than simply providing formal subject training. Institutions are hard-pressed to meet this challenge.

During 1966-1967, Federal funds for education were set aside for the first time to alleviate some of the massive, yet hidden, problems of neglected and delinquent children in State and local institutions.

It was the first time, also, that aid had come to these institutions from any Federal source.

The institutionalized population of the country has never received its share of the attention and concern of the Nation's social conscience. This is reflected in the age and condition of the physical plants, the standards of care and treatment, the living conditions, the education and training of staffs, and the availability of appropriate services.

The deficiencies of the education programs for young people in these institutions are especially apparent. Schools within an institution have larger jobs than those without because of their essential second function—rehabilitation, the building or rebuilding of young lives. Rarely, however, do they have the finances and staffs to provide adequate academic programs; usually, they find it impossible to engage in realistic vocational programs or to involve themselves in the total rehabilitation of the youngsters.

The States and the institutions readily acknowledge the inadequacies of institution schools. Missouri officials report that two-thirds to three-fourths of their institutionalized dependents and delinquents are seriously deficient in such subject areas as arithmetic, science, and social studies. Minnesota is concerned about a high proportion of illiterates, the problems of speech defects, and an average academic achievement level that is three grades below the norms. Nationwide, there is a shortage of qualified psychologists and counselors. Kansas and Missouri, as examples, point out that they have no certified educational counselors for their institutions.

Public Law 89-750 made Title I funds available to 105,403 children in 1,197 eligible State and local public and private institutions. Although the States were unable to suballocate the money to the schools until late spring 1967, all undertook programs for the children in their care. (To be eligible, institutions must, among other criteria, be nonprofit, have at least 10 children between the ages of 5 and 17, provide free education, and have as a primary concern the long-term care of neglected or delinquent children.)

The $14,044,636 allocated for 1966-67 did not break up the logjam of problems. However, the evaluations by the States show that Title I funds were directed meaningfully at basic troubles and have contributed to significant trends toward reform.

Institutions stated a concern with two broad objectives—to improve the academic and vocational education opportunities and to intensify efforts to change the attitudes of the youngsters towards themselves and towards society.

Educational Approaches

The project applications revealed a common, basic approach—the desire to focus as much as possible on "individualizing" formal education. Inside an institution, it is believed, this leads not only to effectiveness in classroom teaching, but also to a warmer, more personal relationship than the insensitive, "institutional" approach.

To reach their fundamental objectives through this individualizing approach, institution educators most often turned their attention to techniques and equipment, established or experimental, which might increase the amount of time that each child received from individual teachers. Approved projects involved programed instruction, individual and small-group tutoring, team teaching, and the use of teacher aides and clerical aides.

The quality of education offered in institutions is far below that of regular school systems in the same State or locality. This explains why the simple matter of hiring a professional counselor or purchasing a piece of audiovisual equipment often is referred to as an "innovative" improvement. The introduction of equipment or professional services that are quite common to public schools might mean a dramatic and exciting change in the character of an institution's school. For example, the Illinois evaluation report introduced a Title I project description as follows: "To my knowledge, the Educational Reading Laboratory has never been used in the State institutional system. Therefore, because it is new to the State institutional system, although not to other public schools in the State, I would deem this program an 'innovative project.'"

Actually, techniques established in regular schools take on new significance when adapted to the peculiar problems of an institution school. This is particularly true of individualized instruction, which helps overcome the problem of providing a sequence of work for pupils who are admitted to, or paroled out of, institutions at times that disrupt any schedule based on a calendar.

The Illinois report, as an illustration, pointed out that a pupil turnover of 100 percent may occur in a class within a single semester: "The most common approach to this problem is the one where the teacher is forced to scrutinize the class for its greatest common weakness and then set up a program that hopefully will bring the greatest amount of benefit for all involved. [Educational Reading Laboratory] is, therefore, an obvious boon to an institutional program and curriculum."

In this case, Title I funds meant that the reading problems at the Illinois State Training School for Girls were scientifically diagnosed for the first time; that equipment was available to train specific skills such as letter recognition, eye movement, concentration, and read-

ing speed; that programed instruction freed the teacher to work on the special problems of each child.

The simple lessening of class size was a meaningful change in some schools. Starr Commonwealth for Boys in Albion, Mich., reduced classes to 11 pupils, a number manageable enough so that youngsters in algebra could work at their own rates.

The Iowa Training School for Boys formed units of 10 pupils who remained with a single teacher for a 4-hour school day. Youngsters who were class "dropouts," their presence hidden in classrooms of 25 or more, were forced to the surface in the smaller units. They could no longer escape the responsibility of classroom performance. Teachers, who once relied on the hourly bell to extricate themselves from discipline problems, found they had to cope with them. The positive effects were a reduction of class disturbances, an observable development of personal responsibility on the part of the pupils, a closer rapport between teachers and pupils, and, of course, more individual attention for the pupils.

The Marian Community School, Marian, Ind., tried five pupils in a class to provide an "unhurried" learning environment and time for confidential, sympathetic conversations between the teachers and pupils. Several schools tried one-to-one tutoring and counseling with results that often were dramatic. The Anne Wittenmyer Home in Davenport, Iowa, a school with 160 neglected children who are seriously emotionally disturbed, used this approach and found the youngsters to be willing and hard workers who offered no behavior problems.

To instill interest and individual responsibility, the Minnesota State Training School paid 40 boys, who were poor readers, to work as tutors for others with more severe reading problems. The tutors, aged 16 to 18, were paid $1 an hour. The reading skill of tutors and pupils had improved by the end of the project.

A number of projects successfully stimulated pupils to work by giving them a role in decision-making. The Blue Mountain Boys' Home, Walla Walla, Wash., and the Freeport School District, Chicago, let pupils select their own subjects for study. Pupils had formal roles in program planning and implementation in the Connecticut School for Boys, the Rhode Island Training School for Boys, and Special School District #3, Duluth, Minn.

Staff and Equipment

The changes in approach represented by many of the programs necessitated investments in staffs, staff training, and equipment. Title I funds helped to solve staff recruitment problems. A wide variety of specialists was hired—a recreational therapist in Kansas, a welding instructor in Illinois, psychologists, reading teachers. Generally, these new employees were properly trained and certified professionals who were lured by the attractive work assignments and reasonable salary levels made possible by Title I.

Ohio spent 62 percent of its funds on staff expansion and inservice training. Pennsylvania gave a two-credit course in vocational education teaching methods to 23 tradesmen instructors. California provided inservice training for 210 professionals and 111 paraprofessionals and employed 36 classroom aides, drawing housewives, college undergraduates, and even high school students into the projects. The use of teacher aides and clerical aides was extensive nationwide.

Similarly, Title I provided for the purchase of badly needed equipment. The importance of this aspect of the newly expanded programs was repeatedly emphasized, from the New Hampshire State Industrial School to the Briscoe Memorial School in Washington State.

Experimental Programs

Several schools undertook experimental programs of varying complexity and significance.

The Girls Vocational School in Helena, Mont., trained 10 students as nursery school aides for local preschool programs. The Green Hill School in Washington State tried bibliotherapeutic sessions which designed group therapy around literary characters such as Huckleberry Finn or Holden Caulfield, the young hero of *The Catcher in the Rye*.

One of the most ambitious experimental programs was carried out at the Wisconsin School for Girls, Oregon, Wis. This project tested the value of using material rewards (candy, soft drinks, movie privileges) to change work and behavior habits in girls who were unmotivated by high grades and praise. The program followed lines used at the National Training School for Boys in Washington, D.C. The Wisconsin School reported "very dramatic changes" in the behavior, attitudes, and academic achievement of some girls who were undersocialized and culturally deprived and severely behind in academic work. The program was judged to be effective enough to use outside the classrooms and was adopted as a system of behavior training and control in a cottage. The psychologist who designed the program concluded that the material rewards (which cost about $1 a week for each girl) diminished in importance as the girls experienced success and learned the value of praise and a feeling of accomplishment.

Accomplishments

Title I programs, mostly limited to 10 weeks or fewer, were too new and too short in 1967 to reveal themselves validly in scientific tests. They can be judged, however, by observable changes that resulted—from the withdrawn classroom child who responded for the first time; from the most serious disciplinary problem pupil in the Wisconsin School for Girls whose improvement earned her parole; from the plans for change, and the actual changes, in institutions' administration policies.

The presence of a new source of money—money that, by law, could not be spent on normal program maintenance—in itself stimulated a re-examination of programs by institutions and their governing agencies, along lines that were not practical or feasible in the past.

The initiation of programs to increase the availability of teachers to the pupils forced administrators, teachers, and other staff people to serious self-examination.

There was concern that the children were not known well enough to be treated as individuals. This prompted widespread emphasis on diagnostic testing and counseling.

Staff people began examining their own competency. At the Minnesota State Training School for Boys in Red Wing, the professional staff entered group dynamics sessions to uncover the values and attitudes and prejudices that they brought to the pupils.

Individualizing class instruction inevitably deemphasizes regimentation, structured classes, and rigid scheduling. The classes become charged with an atmosphere of responsibility and freedom.

This lessening of authoritarianism and tight control in the academic program prompted institutions to re-examine the approach to children after they left the classroom.

In such ways, in this short time, Title I funds have affected significantly the total care and custodial programs of these institutions.

In Michigan, in the Maxey School for Boys, pupils participating in a remedial reading course were permitted to take driver's training. It proved to be an attactive incentive. "If you had programs like this in the public schools you would have less dropouts," one boy said. Three boys passed up early releases to remain an additional 10 weeks to complete the program.

HANDICAPPED CHILDREN

Many children go through school with physical handicaps that go unnoticed by their teachers and counselors.

The handicaps—poor vision, a hearing impairment, even brain damage—seriously interfere with their school work, yet no one seems aware of the trouble.

Often times, only a highly trained specialist can determine the reason for academic failure. The reason may be surprising.

Large numbers of children, classified by classroom tests as mentally retarded, are really the victims of parental neglect, lack of intellectual stimulation, or other circumstances of their home.

In Los Angeles, Calif., about 100 educable mentally retarded children in a Spanish-speaking community were enrolled in special classes. Their curriculum stressed language development and reading. At the end of a school year, about 20 of the "mentally retarded" children tested high enough to be removed from their special classes and enrolled in the general school population. It was evident that these children had been handicapped by cultural factors which made them appear to be mentally retarded. Title I money spent for diagnostic services has helped to avoid such errors.

The Federal program provides the highly specialized teachers and equipment which children with physical handicaps need. Proper education and training for these children often is the difference between a self-sufficient, productive life and one spent in dependency. Unfortunately, more than one-half of the Nation's handicapped children grow up without this education.

Title I benefits go to handicapped children in three ways:

1. Handicapped children enrolled in regular schools are included among the "disadvantaged" defined by Title I and share in general compensatory programs.
2. Local school districts set aside portions of general Title I allocations for special services, courses, programs, even schools, for the handicapped in their pupil population.
3. Under Public Law 89-313, signed by President Johnson in November 1965, grants are available for education programs in State-operated or -supported residential or day schools for the handicapped.

Handicapped Children Under General Title I

The number of handicapped children in general Title I programs is unknown. The statistics concerning Title I aid to handicapped children in this report are concerned only with children in special programs or in State institutions.

Nevertheless, a large number of handicapped children receive general benefits of Title I, such as remedial education, transportation, and counseling services. These children, if they could be counted, would increase several fold the total number of handicapped children served by Title I.

A recent study in Detroit indicated that three out of every four handicapped children come from families living below the poverty level, implying a large overlap of handicapped children among Title I low-income children. It dramatizes the need for diagnostic facilities for all school children, especially children of poverty.

Special Education for the Handicapped in Title I Schools.

Within school districts the amount of Title I money spent for special education for the handicapped increased significantly in the past 2 years.

In Maine, the share for such special education rose from $45,000 to $85,000. Iowa's expenditure went from $683,430 to $978,553 and Georgia's from $458,213 to $918,492.

Large cities have extensive projects in ghetto districts. In rural and sparsely populated regions, Title I money initiated programs where none existed before. There were projects for preschool children as well as for elementary and secondary pupils.

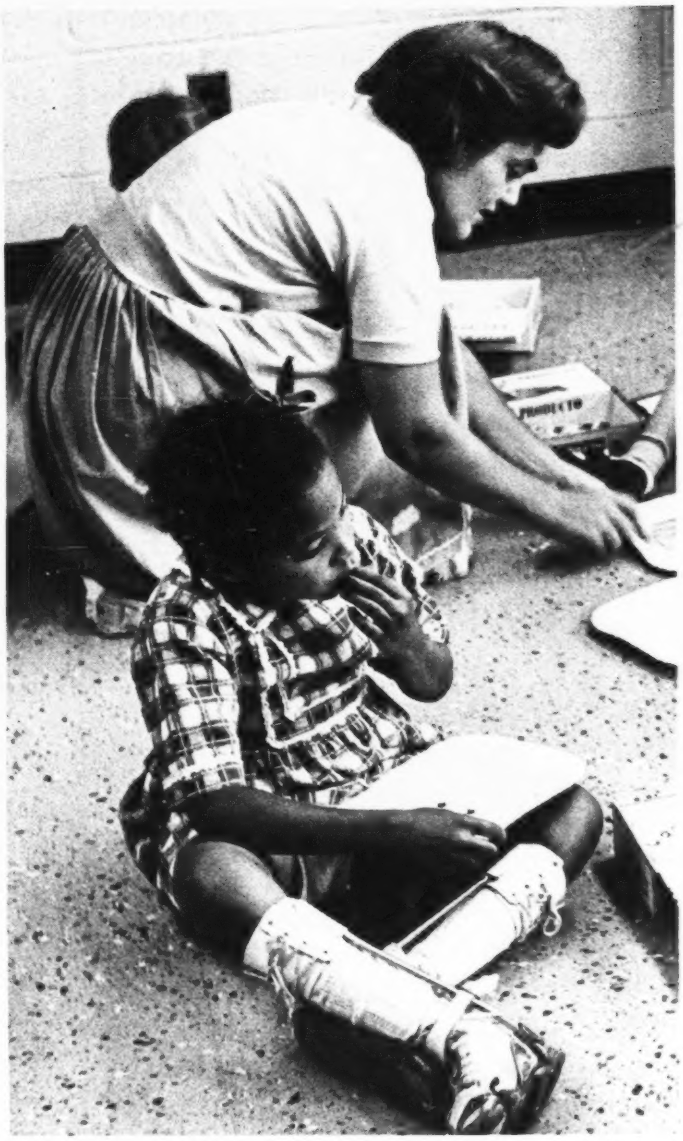
At least one-third of the States used Title I for diagnostic services. Knowledge gained by diagnostic testing sometimes changes the nature of a program. In Pawtucket, R.I., children classified as mentally retarded were re-examined while enrolled in a summer enrichment program. Some were found to have certain characteristics of brain damage, a discovery which put in question the educational approach towards these children.

Professional Staffs and Training

There is an acute national shortage of personnel to work with handicapped children. Title I programs and the availability of more money for salaries brought many more specialists into direct work with these children. Several programs illustrate the range of problem-solving in this critical area:

In Colorado, three school districts in an impoverished coal-mining area pooled their Title I resources to hire two special education teachers in a cooperative program.

In New York City, a teacher training program brought together 20 teacher-trainees and 162 children from public and nonpublic schools. There were separate classes of educable, trainable, doubly handicapped, and neurologically



impaired children. At the end of the summer, the trainees became permanent instructors of handicapped children in New York City schools.

Brevard County, Fla., spent 86 percent of its Title I allocation of $301,000 for salaries and consultant fees for psychologists, counselors, and special teachers for emotionally disturbed and visually handicapped children. In this way, the county reached many handicapped children who, up to then, had not been receiving special services.

In Bethel, Alaska, Title I meant the creation of a special education program where none existed. With a grant of $61,125, a small staff was hired, consisting of two teachers for the deaf, two for the mentally retarded, one for the emotionally disturbed, a kindergarten language specialist, and part-time consultants.

Many problems were solved by cooperative agreements between schools, school districts, and even schools and community organizations.

One example involved seven small districts in New Hampshire, none of which could independently secure a qualified speech therapist. They sent their speech-handicapped children to a summer camp sponsored by the YMCA. The camp administration, working with the Portsmouth (N.H.) Rehabilitation Center, provided the therapist. Another group of New Hampshire districts started a speech program by utilizing the services of a professor of speech pathology from Boston University and five graduate students of speech pathology and audiology.

A city school district in Custer County, Mont., transported all Title I handicapped children to the two city schools that had special classes.

Curriculum

Some districts gave particular attention to curriculum development.

In Framingham, Mass., outside consultants developed individualized curriculums for nine children with severe perceptual handicaps. The goal was to advance the children from individual tutoring to small groups and, with success, into regular classrooms.

In Montana there was a 5-week program to develop fluency and comprehension in language for eight deaf children.

State Schools For The Handicapped

Public Law 89-313 enabled State institutions educating handicapped children to receive Title I funds. In the first year—1967—State agencies received nearly $15,000,000 for 83,000 handicapped children in 700 schools across the country.

More than one-half of these children were mentally retarded; nearly 17,000 were deaf; more than 9,000 were emotionally disturbed; 7,200 were visually handicapped; and more than 2,500 had other crippling or health-impairing problems.

This new source of money for the institutions allowed them to hire more than 4,000 new staff members, initiate or expand more than 100 summer programs, and extend services to preschool children in more than 100 special programs.

During this first year under authority of Public Law 89-313, the program faced three major administrative problems: (1) Late appropriations—which forced many schools to conduct only summer programs; (2) reduction in anticipated appropriations—which meant changing plans to accommodate fewer children or to reduce staffs or equipment purchases; (3) serious shortage of personnel—which required the use of part-time professionals and classroom aides.

Nevertheless, the institutions reported scores of examples illustrating the benefits of Title I money to institutionalized children.

In California, 10 State hospitals developed projects that involved a total of 933 emotionally disturbed or mentally retarded children. Among these was a program for retarded blind children at Pacific State Hospital. The program included instruction in eating, dressing, grooming, and toilet training, as well as practice in speech, finger dexterity, and the recognition of objects by touch. The hospital, in its evaluation, described one boy who would sit on the floor, rocking from side to side as he sucked his thumb all day. At the end of the program, he had learned to eat with a spoon, to walk towards the sound of his teacher's voice, and to hold a guiding rope.

Woodbridge State School in New Jersey used Title I funds for physical education and rehabilitation, occupational training, and speech and sensory training. Woodbridge is a residential institution for 1,000 boys and girls of whom 95 percent are severely retarded and 50 percent nonambulatory. In their evaluation report, Woodbridge officials stated: "Without Federal funds, it would have taken Woodbridge at least a decade to develop as comprehensive a program for the severely retarded as now exists at the school."

The American School for the Deaf in Connecticut worked with 135 students with hearing impairment to develop maximum use of their residual hearing. The gains in language skills made by these children in one year, as measured by the Metropolitan Standardized Achievement Test, were interpreted as "high average" when compared to national norms for hearing-impaired children.

Most programs, in addition to academic instruction and skill training, attempted to alleviate some of the particular problems created by institution life, such as isolation of the children from their families and from children who are not handicapped.

The Utah School for the Blind hired a recreation leader, a clinical psychologist, and a dormitory specialist to recommend ways to improve the daily dormitory life. This institution also held a 1-week workshop for 28 staff members to improve their methods of teaching children how to care for themselves.

The School for the Deaf and the Blind, Romney, W. Va., held an institute for 30 parents of preschool deaf and blind children. The parents learned about general problems of handicapped children, the kinds of recreational and social activities that can be provided at home, and methods for educating them in their preschool years. Staff evaluations were made of the children of these parents and were used to plan programs for the children when they enrolled in the school. The staff discussed each child's problems with his parents and the educational facilities that were available for the children.

In general, funds from sources other than the Federal Government are heavily committed to basic care—building maintenance, food, clothing, medical care, custodial staff, etc. Title I money was responsive to a growing awareness of the principal duty of institutions for the handicapped. It has sharpened the focus on education and training.

INDIAN CHILDREN

The average Indian on a reservation earns no more than $1,500 a year. He lives, on the average, no more than 46 years. And most often he has never been off the reservation where he was born.

Title I, in the first 6 months of 1967, invested $5 million in some 50,000 children attending U.S. Bureau of Indian Affairs (BIA) schools in 17 States.

The 1967 regular allocation for Indian schools provided $1,397 for each boarding pupil (two-thirds of the children in BIA schools) and $784 for each day pupil. Title I added $100 per child.

This was the first time children of low-income Indian families were included in Title I. Yet in the few short months of operation, the program hit hard at some of the serious problems confronting these disadvantaged youngsters.

It gave them concentrated courses in English because most Indian children neither speak nor understand the language before they go to school. Besides reading and mathematics, it developed—in some instances for the first time—a physical education and health program to fill the many nonacademic hours of boarding-school life.

Title I sought first to raise the self-esteem of Indian children. Geographic isolation and low self-image go hand in hand. As a result, most Indian children do not aspire to goals appropriate to their talents and abilities. A study of 411 southwestern Indian teenagers revealed that 75 percent felt they "were not important." An equal percentage—no doubt, these same teenagers—believed they "weren't smart."

Besides social isolation, children attending BIA boarding schools are often victims of severe family disintegration. In many cases, there is no successful adult in the family after whom children can pattern their lives. Some children have been in correctional institutions. Some have been dismissed from or rejected by public schools.

Broadening Horizons

One of the first efforts of Title I was to relieve the geographic isolation of these children through trips beyond their home environment. For example, children of the Supai Day School on the Havasupai Reservation at the bottom of the Grand Canyon came up and out of the canyon for the first time. They visited Flagstaff, Ariz.—making the trip up the canyon walls on horseback, then by bus to the nearest paved road, and an additional drive of 110 miles to Flagstaff.

Children on the Navajo Reservation visited national monuments preserving the ancient homes of their people. Indian high school students from Wingate High in New Mexico visited the State legislature to see a Navajo senator and several Navajo members of the House of Representatives honored by their legislative colleagues.

These trips accomplished several purposes. They developed a sense of pride in the Indian heritage, and they took the children outside the narrow, secluded existence of the reservation.

Trips also helped in language development. The children were put in situations where the English sounds, words, and sentence patterns learned in the classroom were essential to communication.

Audiovisual aids likewise brought the outside world to the reservation. Television equipment transmitted educational programs to four Anadarko Area Schools (Western Oklahoma); the Chemawa Indian School (Oregon), which serves transported Alaskan native students; and the Phoenix Indian School for Navajo, Pima, Papago, Apache, and Supai children.

New multimedia centers were begun in extremely isolated areas, and the service-wide film library was greatly expanded through the use of $85,000 in Title I funds, which provided films and other equipment.

Teachers report increased enthusiasm and motivation even in traditional learning situations—particularly where there has been concrete exposure to situations and experiences previously known only in the abstract.

Language

In the instructional program, some 23,268 Indian children participated in English as a second language projects. A study by the Southwestern Cooperative Educational Laboratory, Albuquerque, N. Mex., found that approximately 35,327 children were functionally non-English-speaking at the time they entered school.

Programs to promote the use of English varied from language laboratories (especially for Alaskan and Navajo children) to a choral music program at Intermountain School, Brigham City, Utah.

Demonstration schools at Rock Point and Chuska Boarding Schools on the Navajo Reservation were greatly augmented through Title I. Most supervisors and many teachers attended weeklong sessions on the kinds of instruction most effective in developing competency and fluency in the English language.

Title I support stimulated remedial reading programs. It was used to obtain reading specialists, purchase reading devices, employ teacher aides, and lower pupil-teacher ratios.

One highly successful technique in many reading programs was the use of paperback books. These did much to stimulate slow readers. Paperbacks were made available to students on an informal basis. When one was returned, another could be taken. There was no formal check-out procedure.

Older children who could not read well were given materials keyed to their interests but written on a primer level. As a result, they began to taste books like a new food.

Staff

Title I also sponsored in the spring of 1967 a "Thousand Teacher Workshop" for teachers from the Navajo area as well as public school teachers and representatives from all other BIA areas. The newest philosophies and techniques in teaching English to non-English speakers were explained and demonstrated.

This training, plus the use of bilingual teacher aides, has considerably eased the burden of teaching English to young Indian children. Aides are now commonplace on the Navajo Reservation in Arizona, New Mexico, and Utah; on the Miccosukee and Seminole Reservations in Florida; as well as in most other areas.

Besides the usual role of the aide—to release the professional staff for more individual instruction—aides in Indian schools provided the special function of serving as friends and counselors to the children. They help make the transition from reservation to the school world and a non-Indian society less difficult.

About 500 instructional aides, all funded through Title I, worked in Indian schools in 1967. Some 325 of these aides were bilingual. They usually were parents or other local Indian adults. Specifically—

* All 51 of the aides trained in the Juneau area were Alaskan natives.

* Thirty-seven adults from the Hopi Reservation in Arizona served as aides in Hopi schools.

* Navajo tribal leaders and other adults acted as consultants by teaching classes in Navajo culture, language, traditions, history, and religion.

In most cases, aides were trained through Title I support. This money also allowed BIA to develop a teacher-aide manual to be used in a "career ladder" training program for all of its instructional aides.

According to BIA teachers, the success of many programs depended upon the presence of the aides. Ninety percent said they wanted more aides; all agreed that it was wise to employ Indian people for this purpose.

Guidance and Counseling

Through Title I, the guidance and counseling program in BIA schools has been expanded considerably. A concentrated inservice training program has helped prepare guidance personnel for their unique responsibilities.

At Albuquerque Indian School counseling services were extended to the parents on the reservation. The purpose of the program was to minimize the number of dropouts and aid the near-graduate in planning his future.

The counselors often encountered difficulties because they were not Indian and required an interpreter. In addition, the high mobility of the Indian population often made it hard to find the child's parents.

The Title I guidance and counseling program in BIA schools fulfilled a long-recognized but unmet need. Such programs have "made a significant difference to many Indian children . . . and these children are better off" because of it, BIA officials said. Administrators of many BIA schools, aware of the advantages of good counseling and guidance, can now begin to push for these programs.

Physical Education

Equally long-recognized and long-neglected have been physical education and recreation programs for Indian children—especially the 34,000 living in BIA boarding schools. What they have needed for years is equipment, personnel, and supplies for physical fitness and recreation programs.

During the spring of 1967, Title I money allowed the purchase of physical education equipment and paid the salaries of physical education and recreational personnel. Supported programs included arts and crafts, outdoor and indoor games, traditional exercises, bowling, swimming, and skiing as well as recreational reading, hobby clubs, and dancing.

Although not measurable in any objective way, many gains in enthusiasm, physical fitness, motivation, and self-esteem have been seen by school personnel. For example:

* At the Chilocco School, Chilocco, Okla., the dance and physical education programs were so popular that attendance had to be restricted because of space limitations.

* At Oglala Community School, Pine Ridge, S. Dak., the recreation program was extended to evenings and weekends.

* At Sherman Institute in Riverside, Calif., 12 part-time recreational aides were hired to work

from 8 to 25 hours a week. This made possible softball teams, ping-pong, pool, bowling, and field trip activities.

Thus, Title I has added a new dimension to the education of Indian children. Its effect is best summed up by a child development counselor at the Wahpeton Indian School in North Dakota.

"You cannot measure in dollars and cents the value [of Title I] to each individual. . . . If only more people were aware of this type of program, I'm sure the years ahead for these youngsters would be very bright."

VII

A NEW SURVEY INSTRUMENT

As a result of fiscal year 1967 evaluation experiences, the 3rd year of Title I operations will be evaluated by a new, more sophisticated survey instrument. Designed by the Office of Education in cooperation with State Title I evaluators and OE consultants, the model will secure data on a sample of approximately 180,000 Title I students in selected grades. Not the school district, nor the school, but the Title I child is the major subject of this in-depth instrument.

Since the Title I child does not live or learn in a vacuum, OE will attempt to secure background information about his home and school environment—from the home standpoint, vital socioeconomic data; from the school standpoint, basic funding, enrollment, staffing, and program information. An attempt will be made to describe the Title I child, the factors affecting his learning, the compensatory education programs he is participating in, and the progress he is making. OE will try to relate the Title I child's outputs to the inputs—that is, his achievements in relation to the various influences operating on him. To elicit this kind of data, OE has developed three questionnaires—one to be filled out by the school principal, the other two by the teacher (one questionnaire about the teacher and the other about the pupils sampled).

The evaluation instrument is scheduled to be in effect for at least 3 years with minor modifications to be based on analysis from previous years. The benefits to be derived from it are many. In addition to those mentioned, the instrument establishes a uniform reporting and data collection procedure. It is expected to provide data on the relative impact of specific Title I activities and their cost benefits, and introduce to local and State agencies a new approach in evaluating compensatory education activities. The instrument is not, however, without its limitations. For one thing, local and State educational representatives have advised OE against introducing it into non-Title I schools, thus limiting OE's basis for comparison. For another, due to cost restraints and to the magnitude of the task, the survey, at least for the 1st of the 3 years, is confined to and geared toward elementary schools, where most of the Title I effort is going. Also, data comparability still looms as a major obstacle in interpreting the significance of Title I. In terms of testing, an initial step would involve the establishment of a uniform testing system, including comparable tests, grades, and reporting procedures.

Nevertheless, the instrument used to evaluate Title I programs in the 1967-68 school year represents a distinct advance in obtaining meaningful information on the effectiveness of Title I projects. As such, it is another step in OE's effort to fulfill the requirement of Congress to determine the impact of Title I on raising the educational level of disadvantaged children.

APPENDIX A

SPECIAL REPORTS

Several categories of Title I activities were studied by private researchers under contract with the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. The services of consultants from outside the Department were utilized in order to ensure objective judgments.

This appendix contains reports on these studies, arranged in the following sequence:

- National survey of Title I reading projects
- Reading in Appalachia
- Impact of Title I on four poverty districts in rural eastern Kentucky
- Study of compensatory education in major cities
- Public-nonpublic school relations
- A study of cost-effectiveness in Title I schools
- Developing a cost-effectiveness model
- Major characteristics associated with Title I in Iowa
- Teacher attitudes

The findings and claims in the reports are those of the researchers and do not necessarily reflect the opinion of the U.S. Office of Education.

Details of the studies can be obtained from the Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC), U.S. Office of Education, 400 Maryland Avenue, S.W., Washington, D.C. 20202.

National Survey of Title I Reading Projects

This survey, conducted by Western Reserve University, covered six types of Title I reading projects in 632 school systems. Thirty-four systems received special scrutiny. These were chosen on the basis of size, geographical location, number of pupils receiving help in reading through Title I, amount of Title I money allocated to reading, type of program, and the program's unique features.

Approximately three-fourths of the survey participants listed "obtaining qualified teachers" as a critical problem along with "too many children who needed help." Less serious obstacles were inadequate teacher training, personnel shortage for planning and supervising projects, and delays in obtaining facilities, materials, and equipment.

For the most part, educators believe curriculums should be keyed to the great majority of pupils and remedial programs provided for the others. Only a handful realize that these "majority"-oriented curriculums do not in fact fit as many as one-half of the pupils in the schools. These educators are calling for an educational revolution. They seek child-need-centered programs supported by well-prepared personnel, reduction of class size, diagnostic teaching procedures, personalized instruction, and quantities of appropriate materials. Tomorrow's curriculum will, they say, depend increasingly upon the independent learning ability of the student. And reading is the basic tool for such independence.

An encouraging trend noted during the study was the added emphasis on programs for young children.

Admittedly, during the early months of Title I, many people with little or no additional training were expected to undertake work with the disadvantaged. Where training was offered, teachers desired help of a more practical nature and often expressed disappointment when meetings were devoted to a "sharing of ignorance." Lack of supervisory counsel handicapped some programs. By contrast, in-service programs appeared effective where enthusiastic, knowledgeable consultants worked closely with the school staff.

Studies have repeatedly shown that the conditions of instruction and the background of the teacher are more influential than methods or materials in teaching children to read.

Priority must be given to two directly related steps: (1) Downward extension of public school programs to include 3-, 4-, and 5-year-olds, and (2) instructional improvements in reading in the primary grades.

To facilitate the latter, hundreds of additional reading consultants will be needed to work with teachers. Preparation of these consultants will require substantial grants for full-time study at universities which have designed special programs for them.

The establishment of regional centers should be considered. In addition to their leadership functions, the centers might serve as vital forces to coordinate the efforts of project directors and to conduct research to eliminate and/or overcome the devastating effects of ghetto childhoods.

During the survey researchers found 54 percent of the reading programs in the Nation were primarily remedial. These included clinics, remedial classes, and/or corrective classes for pupils whose reading retardation varied from severe to mild. Combination programs (29.6 percent) usually involved two or more projects associated with reading but often administered independently. Developmental (12.8 percent), enrichment (1.6 percent), inservice education (1 percent), and special projects (1 percent) made up the remaining categories.

The three most common remedial approaches were small groups of 10 or less (368 systems), classes 4 to 5 times a week (301), and periods of 31 minutes or more (277).

Innovative aspects most frequently reported were new materials (515), provision for individual or small group instruction (397), changes in instructional environment (343), and individual diagnostic work (273). Few schools gave any indication of developing new techniques or materials or of initiating creative projects.

Systems were about equally divided in their use of teacher aides or paraprofessionals. More than half of the aides came from the school neighborhood.

Despite the fact that most schools considered training important for those who work with disadvantaged children, 75 systems provided no inservice education. Others offered meetings led by local specialists or university consultants at infrequent intervals. Only 77 systems reported carefully planned training of 15 hours or more throughout the school year.

Reading in Appalachia

Pennsylvania State University researched the impact of Title I on the reading competence of elementary and secondary school pupils in the Northern Appalachian areas of Maryland, Ohio, Pennsylvania, and West Virginia.

This was done by assessing fourth and seventh graders in samples from 66 different schools involving 1,500 pupils in 16 school districts. The assessment included pretests and posttests; classroom observations; interviews with teachers, pupils, and administrators; and the examination of materials and their use.

Class organizations varied widely. Generally, small groups of 10 or fewer pupils met with a remedial reading teacher three to five times a week, but the more individualized focus of a reading laboratory or of a teacher-teacher's aide plan was also used.

The total group studied was not greatly deficient in comprehension or vocabulary. However, the group was considerably behind its peers in basic skills. In similar reading programs, local education agencies aimed at different goals. For some, the primary goal was to change attitudes; others worked toward increased reading speed and accuracy or skill in phonetic identification.

Both fourth and seventh grades recorded gains which were 3 to 4 months greater than expectations during the 1966-67 school year. It must be remembered that total gains per district are deceptive. Just arresting regression would be a realistic first step for most children in these projects. Nevertheless, a number of fourth graders gained 7 months in total reading ability; some gained 9 months or more.

Individual seventh grade classes showed remarkable achievement in particular areas such as reading speed and accuracy. All schools in one district gained an extraordinary 4 to 5 years, one school rose from sixth grade average ability to the 11th grade average level in 10 months. An attitude test did not reveal a significant change in overall feelings about reading in either fourth or seventh grade.

Two incontestable and unlooked-for findings were apparent in a number of schools: (1) Teachers often had been stimulated to develop low cost, highly individualized lesson materials and procedures to benefit disadvantaged pupils; (2) there was frequent evidence of local initiative to stretch Title I funds further than might ordinarily have been expected.

Though modest when considered in absolute terms and in comparison with results obtained from national norm groups, the general impact of Title I projects upon reading competencies was considered substantial for these youngsters who have previously not been able to make "normal" progress in developing reading skills.

It was concluded that:

1. In most cases projects made discernible progress toward individual reading goals.
2. Many children making slow progress before entering a Title I program responded well to individual help and accelerated their overall development.
3. A number of schools which were able to offer adequate reading programs for the first time (due to Federal support) realized extraordinary success.
4. Significant gains were made in rural areas and small towns with average-to-low general economy.
5. The greatest gains were recorded by school districts which offered innovative instruction within a changed environment; scheduled classes of 10 or fewer pupils meeting three to five times per week; and provided training for Title I teachers.

Impact of Title I on Four Poverty Districts in Rural Eastern Kentucky

Before projects funded by Title I were started in poverty-stricken schools in rural Eastern Kentucky, a team of educational researchers from the University of Kentucky reported that: There was no effort to go outside the school district to hire teachers or administrators; there were no specific job descriptions or assignments in the schools for administrators and nonprofessional personnel; there were no cost-accounting systems to find out how funds were spent; there was no major testing program for pupils in the public schools; nor was there any other major program of self-evaluation.

In 1966-67, the university researchers revisited the same four rural school districts and found that:

"Title I unquestionably had more potential for producing rapid change in the school districts of this study than any event in their history." Change was especially evident in the organization of the school systems.

An effort had been made to define responsibilities through job descriptions. Specific requirements for certain jobs resulted in the recruitment of more competent personnel. Regular staff meetings improved communications. Districts tried to develop testing programs to make data available for program evaluations.

Study of Compensatory Education in Major Cities

The TEMPO division of the General Electric Company, in a study for the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, analyzed data from a sample of schools in 11 school districts. The study concluded:

1. The data did not indicate any change in the average pupil achievement in the schools studied from 1965-66 to 1966-67. While individual schools or grades showed marked changes—positive as well as negative—the measures were not sufficiently reliable to suggest general findings.

The study measured the effects of compensatory education by comparing achievement test data in a specific grade and school for one year with those for children in the same grade and school the following year. Hence, a finding of no change from one year to the next may or may not have represented an improvement over previous years.

2. The data did indicate a slight improvement among those pupils who scored at or below the 10th percentile—the lowest 10 percent of the pupils in the schools studied. The other groups studied—students in the lowest quarter as well as those in the top quarter—showed slight negative changes in achievement test scores between the pretest and posttest periods.
3. There was little correlation between changes in achievement and grade level.
4. Schools with 40 to 60 percent Negro pupils showed the poorest response to education programs.

5. Three of the 11 districts were well above the other eight in the amount spent per pupil for compensatory education programs. These same three districts showed marked improvement in reading scores as compared to the remaining eight districts in the study.

The general absence of compatible pupil data among, as well as within, the selected school districts; pupil mobility; frequent absence of annual testing programs; and lack of records were major concerns to the contractor.

Because of the difficulties encountered by TEMPO, the study recommended that HEW start an explicit analysis to measure the progress of individual students during exposure to compensatory education programs. Such an analysis would cover more than a single year, and include information on the student's race, family income, and social class. It would provide detailed data on the regular school programs and compensatory education programs in which the student participated for at least a few years, as well as achievement test data and other "output" data for at least a few consecutive years.

Public-Nonpublic School Relations

Boston College researchers conducted a national evaluation of the impact of Title I on the participation of nonpublic school children.

The researchers designed a sample consisting of 30 local public education agencies (LEAs) each in a different State. The sample was subdivided into three groups: (1) 10 large school systems, each enrolling more than 36,000 pupils; (2) 10 medium school systems with from 10,000 to 36,000 pupils; and (3) 10 small school systems of 10,000 pupils or fewer.

The study pointed up numerous problems involving participation of nonpublic school children in Title I programs. Many reflected early growing pains of the program. Some have already been solved; others still persist.

The major obstacle was faulty communication. Many local school officials—both public and nonpublic—failed to understand the provisions of Title I and how schools outside the public system could become involved. This misunderstanding resulted in a spirit of noncooperation and mistrust on both sides. It also produced an air of uncertainty and an inconsistency in contacts between the LEA coordinators and nonpublic school officials, especially in medium and small school districts.

The most frequent complaint of nonpublic school officials was that they were not always invited to participate in planning projects. When they were, they found that the approved projects were often much different from what had been discussed and presumably agreed upon earlier.

The nonpublic school officials claimed that local projects were designed mainly to meet the needs of eligible children in the public school system and then modified to accommodate nonpublic school students with corresponding needs. As a result, activities were scheduled at times and in places which made participation by nonpublic school children difficult if not impossible.

Another important weakness, the study showed, was the LEAs' failure to provide nonpublic school administrators with the data on the experience and progress of nonpublic school participants in Title I projects. In no instance did nonpublic school officials in the sample's 30 districts participate in the review or evaluation of projects.

Despite these shortcomings, nonpublic schools —parochial schools in particular—have shown an increased interest in government-sponsored education programs. A number of Roman Catholic dioceses recently appointed coordinators for government programs. And the creation of statewide associations of dioceses has, in large measure, eased the problem of disseminating information to Catholic school officials.

But above and beyond all this stands the obstacle of legal barriers which, to varying degrees, limit involvement of nonpublic school children in the Title I program. No amount of friendly cooperation or program interest can overcome this.

A Study of Cost-Effectiveness in Title I Schools

What constitutes a meaningful evaluation?

How can you judge the relative merits of an intensive program that affects 50 children and another program that aims for a smaller effect on 5,000 children?

To meet these questions, Technomics, Inc., a systems analysis firm now a part of Encyclopedia Britannica, examined the feasibility of cost-effectiveness analysis for Title I schools. The study began in April 1966 and continued through April 1967.

Technomics concluded that:

"It is feasible to apply a suitably modified version of cost-effectiveness technology to matters of educational expenditure; furthermore, we can describe the necessary modifications in considerable detail. We can also specify an easily understood tool for program planning and budgeting that will be immediately usable at the local level."

The "tool for program planning and budgeting" has two major components:

1. A method—cluster analysis—that allows its user to associate benefits (such as increases in some desired effect) and costs with the characteristics of a learning environment;
2. A matrix that facilitates program planning and budgeting over a period of time and specifies and records the evolution of a school system toward some predetermined goal.

As part of its analysis the study team looked into the impact of Title I. The researchers reported, in part:

"If we are not deluding ourselves—and none of us was equipped with rose-colored glasses—we saw real evidence of change and growth as a result of Title I."

They said that, in the beginning, Title I had its biggest impact on teachers and school administrators.

"We saw a clear trend toward better communication, better understanding, and better organization in educational systems," they explained.

The requirements of Title I also meant that affected school systems had to sharpen their planning and evaluation skills.

The overall result, Technomics said, is that "educators are beginning to realize that they cannot aim an artillery barrage of subject matter at a specific target and let fly; they will have to demonstrate that the materials are being accepted and assimilated to a greater degree than before. They will have to address the real problems of the real culturally deprived child, not a stereotype from which a trail of false conclusions follows."

The available study—in four parts—includes details of its survey findings covering 12 school systems, a discussion of the prerequisites to cost-effectiveness analysis in education, and a description of the cost-effectiveness model and how it works.

Developing a Cost-Effectiveness Model

This project is the first step in developing a tool for predicting effectiveness of alternative education improvement programs within the same school-community setting.

The model was designed during the 1966-67 school year by ABT Associates, Inc. of Cambridge, Mass. It is expected to be tried under a new contract with ABT during the 1967-68 school year.

The master model will predict cost-effectiveness for each education program fed into it. This would be based on: Average achievement of the target population plus changes in average achievement; changes in dropouts; changes in numbers of high school graduates; and changes in future earnings of target population.

The master model consists of several satellite or submodels for: achievement; pupil grade promotions; course of study selection; dropouts; and earning potentials based upon educational advancement.

The achievement submodel will predict achievement based on the formula:

$$\text{Achievement} = \frac{\text{Instructional Effectiveness Factors} + \text{School Service Environment Factors}}{\text{Resistance factors}}$$

Instructional effectiveness factors involve: (1) the quality of instruction based on the use of the latest curricilm materials and teacher salary; (2) the intensity of instruction based on ratios of teacher to student, texts to student, desks to student, and the dollar value of equipment per student; and (3) the duration of instruction—hours per day, days per week, weeks per year.

School service environment factors concern whether a new program has been introduced and the intensity of service measured by ratios of professionals per student, space per student, and the dollar value of materials exposed to school environment by hours per day, days per week, and weeks per year.

Resistance factors of sociological obstacles to learning are measured by the income level of parents, education level of parents, handicaps including health and language, family solidarity, grade achievement gap for the Negro child in a primarily white school, and grade achievement gap for the Negro child in a primarily Negro school.

The course of study selection is based on outcomes of the achievement and school flow submodels together with the socio-economic stability of each pupil.

A dropout submodel is still being developed but its values will be related to the student achievement and attitude submodels.

Through a community effects submodel, ABT says it can predict the lifetime earning potential of each student, i.e., if he takes an academic high school course and goes on to college or does not go to college. The second kind of community effects result is an indicator which describes the association of student performance with the student's background.

The last portion of the overall model will provide feedback for analysis by the decision-makers involved in evaluation.

Major Characteristics Associated with Title I in Iowa

Iowa was chosen for this study because it has the most complete data bank on pupils, teachers, school administrators, school financing, school buildings, and test-scores on a statewide basis.

The Iowa study will be in two parts. This report covers only Part I. Part II, an analysis of the data, is planned for 1968-69.

The study, conducted by the Iowa Educational Information Center of the University of Iowa, is intended for use in training Federal, State, and local school districts evaluation personnel. During the 1965-66 academic year, a pupil description questionnaire was administered to all public secondary school pupils in the State. Title I pupil responses were matched with a statewide comparison group. When achievement was compared (as measured by grade mark-point average), the general tendency was for Title I pupils to score at a lower mark-point average.

Title I pupils were more involved in excessive outside work for pay. This apparently handicapped their academic achievement. Title I pupils also spent less time doing homework than the statewide group. There is a positive correlation between time spent doing homework and mark-point average.

In summary, aspirations of Title I pupils were lower, their expectations lower, their attendance poorer, and their academic achievement lower on all facets as compared with the statewide sample.

The study also showed:

Educators were able to identify the educationally deprived child; 95 percent of the eligible school districts participated in Title I programs; the main projects were reading remediation; there was poor involvement at the preschool and early primary levels; there was a good ratio of administrative personnel to teaching and other personnel; Title I administrators seemed slightly younger, slightly less experienced, and earned slightly less than their counterparts not involved in Title I.

Also, teachers in Title I had slightly more years of experience and years of service within the school district, but had slightly less college work and earned a smaller salary than non-Title I teachers; inservice training was a component of only a few of the total number of projects; health services represented the largest average expenditure as a supporting service; the smallest expenditure was for class reduction; counseling and social work accounted for the largest listed expenditure.

Teacher Attitudes

Arizona State University studied changes in the attitudes of educators toward disadvantaged children before, during, and after special inservice training. The study covered Arizona, California, Nevada, and New Mexico.

Public school teachers, instructional leaders, and consultants from 50 selected Title I projects with inservice training courses were tested.

A control group from the same schools, which did not take the inservice program, was also tested for comparison. The tested teachers took the inservice training voluntarily. Basically, the test required the teacher to mark on a scale his attitude to various words such as "authoritarian teacher," "disadvantaged child," and "Mexican-American."

Control teachers maintained unfavorable attitudes toward disadvantaged pupils. Teachers who experienced Title I training changed favorably toward these children. In working with the disadvantaged, they also demonstrated "less favorable" attitudes toward authoritarian and remedial teachers, "three R's," and the physical sciences.

Instructional leaders who took the inservice training had the greatest degree of favorable attitude change. Almost no change in attitude was found in the group of consultants who took the training.

APPENDIX B

STATE PROGRAMS FOR THE DISADVANTAGED

The enactment of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act in April of 1965 and the launching of its Title I during the 1965-66 school year heightened public awareness of the urgent need to improve the quality of education for disadvantaged children. At the same time, the law stimulated States to take a look at their individual problems.

As a result, some States came to realize that Federal funds were not enough for the massive job ahead. Twelve States started to allocate funds, mostly to local education agencies (LEAs), for programs that are similar in nature and purpose to those funded under Title I—California, Connecticut, Illinois, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Nebraska, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Washington, and Wisconsin.

With few exceptions, these programs were begun about the same time as Title I operations or shortly thereafter. They resemble Title I in the many benefits, services, and activities which they provide.

The following examples show how States are augmenting Title I efforts to aid disadvantaged children. State-funded programs for special groups such as handicapped and migrant children are not included.

CALIFORNIA

McAteer Act of 1963

Dates—Passed in 1963; implemented in 1963-64 school year. Project concluded in 1965.

Approximate level of State funding—$300,000 a year for the 2-year program.

Method of allotting funds—State reimbursed those local educational agencies that received project grants up to two-thirds of the costs or not more than $24 per pupil participant.

Description—Established a 2-year pilot project designed to encourage disadvantaged children to remain in school. Some approaches used by participating LEAs included small classes, remedial instruction, intensified guidance and counseling, cultural enrichment, flexible class or facility arrangement, inservice training, preschool and parent education, pupil personnel services, library facilities, and tutorial instruction. The act also created an Advisory Committee on Compensatory Education.

McAteer Act of 1965 (Senate Bill 482)

Dates—Passed in 1965; implemented in January 1966.

Approximate level of State funding—$1 million in 1965-66 school year; $1.3 million in 1966-67; $1 million in 1967-68.

Method of allotting funds—Funds channeled to LEAs and institutions of higher education after review of their project proposals.

Description—Finances research projects designed to improve preservice and inservice programs for school personnel, and to develop effective methods of teaching the disadvantaged. Also established an Office of Compensatory Education to administer projects, advise

LEAs, and grant State funds to LEAs for experimental programs.

1966 Amendments to McAteer Act of 1965 (Senate Bill 28)

Dates—Passed in 1966; implemented in 1966-67 school year.

Approximate level of State funding—$44 million for 1966-67 school year; $38 million for 1967-68 school year.

Method of allotting funds—A formula—based on income of parents, employment statistics, and reading test scores of 5th grade children—determined which areas were in greatest need.

Description—LEAs received funds to (1) reduce the pupil-teacher ratio to 25-1 in elementary schools; (2) construct and equip new classrooms, renovate existing ones, purchase or lease relocatable classrooms, and acquire new sites for classrooms in poverty areas; (3) operate experimental projects to test new methods of teaching reading and mathematics to 7th, 8th, and 9th grades. Relocatable classrooms were provided to school districts serving children of migrant agricultural workers.

Unruh Preschool Act of 1965

Dates–Passed in 1965; implemented in 1965-66 school year.

Approximate level of State funding—$2 million for 1965-66; $2.5 million for 1966-67; $3.8 million for 1967-68. The State contributes 25 percent of total funds; the remaining 75 percent is provided under authority of Social Security Act of 1962.

Method of allotting funds—Entitlements are determined on the basis of the Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) program of the Social Security Administration.

Description—Variety of services for preschool children: health, nutrition, and enrichment experiences, for example.

CONNECTICUT

An Act Concerning State Aid for Disadvantaged Children

Dates—Passed in 1965; implemented in 1965-66 school year; renewed for another 2 years in 1967.

Approximate level of State funding—$5 million for each of the first 2 years; $6.2 million for 1967-68 school year.

Method of allotting funds—Funds to LEAs provided on the basis of the number of families in each town earning $4,000 or less per year and the number of children in each town receiving aid through State welfare programs.

Description—Activities that can be funded under this act include: Prekindergarten programs focusing on the development of children and the prevention of learning disabilities; remedial programs; work study programs; reduced class size and changes in instructional procedures; ancillary services; and innovative and experimental programs.

ILLINOIS

House Bill 1704

Dates—Passed in 1965; implemented in August 1967.

Approximate level of State funding—$500,000 for fiscal year 1968.

Method of allotting funds—State reviews project proposals and applications submitted by universities and research organizations.

Description—Funds provided for research and evaluation related to Title I programs. Through experimental and demonstration projects, attempts are made to develop solutions to the problems of Title I, to assess Title I accomplishments, and to determine what the State itself should fund.

MARYLAND

Current Expense Fund

Dates–Passed in spring of 1967; implemented in 1967-68 school year.

Approximate level of State funding—$5 million for 1967-68 school year.

Method of allotting funds–Direct grant to Baltimore City.

Description—Financial assistance to meet needs of Baltimore City's deprived children through programs similar to those provided under Title I. The City is required to report to the State how the money was spent.

MASSACHUSETTS

Chapter 650 of the Acts of 1964

Dates–Passed in 1964; begun in 1964-65 school year; not renewed for 1967-68 school year.

Approximate level of State funding—$100,000

for 1964-65 school year. Most of the money was not spent. For each of the following 2 years, therefore, the State legislature appropriated only enough money to raise the level of funding to $100,000 a year.
Method of allotting funds—To get the projects underway, LEAs were required to pay the full costs. The State then reimbursed 50 percent of the expenditures.

Description—Encouraged three types of projects to assist disadvantaged children: A broad program of compensatory education; workshops in human relations for all teachers in the community; and pilot or research projects to determine effectiveness of certain teaching methods and materials.

MICHIGAN

State Aid Act (Section 4)

Dates—Passed in 1965; implemented in 1965-66 school year.
Approximate level of State funding—$2 million for 1965-66 school year; $4 million for 1966-67; $4 million for 1967-68.
Method of allotting funds—Funds provided to LEAs on the basis of income of families ($3,000 or less), number of children in families receiving welfare, and number of children in unemployed families. LEAs must show that at least one-fourth of their membership consists of underprivileged children.
Description—Encourages development and extension of programs to meet specific needs of disadvantaged children. Programs are similar to those funded under Title I.

NEBRASKA

School Foundation and Equalization Act (Legislative Bill 448)

Dates—Passed in 1967; implemented in 1967-68 school year.
Approximate level of State funding–$25 million for 1967-68 school year.
Method of allotting funds—All local school districts may receive funds according to an established formula. In addition, those districts providing programs for educationally deprived children receive additional funds according to an equalization formula in which disadvantaged children are counted twice.
Description—Incentive payments to encourage local districts to develop programs for the disadvantaged. In the 1967-68 school year, the State is assisting only those LEAs which have ongoing programs. In 1968-69, LEAs will be able to initiate programs with State funds.

NEW YORK

State Aid for Experimental Programs (Programs funded through Amendments to Education Laws)

Dates–Passed in 1958; implemented in 1958-59 school year.
Approximate level of State funding—$200,000 for 1958-59 school year.
Gradual increases followed. Level of funding is $500,000 for 1967-68 school year.

Method of allotting funds–State guarantees a minimum of 50 percent of project costs.
Description—Encourages educational experimentation in local school districts to improve the quality of education in all academic disciplines. Originally, science and mathematics were emphasized; in 1967-68 experimental programs were funded in other areas, such as English, modern foreign languages, and special education for gifted and disadvantaged children. Proposals may be submitted by LEAs, Boards of Cooperative Educational Services, and county vocational education and extension boards.

New York State Education Department Experimental Prekindergarten Program (Part of Amendments to Education Laws)

Dates—Initiated in 1966-67 school year.
Approximate level of State funding—$5 million for both 1966-67 and 1967-68 school years.
Method of allotting funds—In 1966-67, the State paid 90 percent of costs and the local districts paid 10 percent. In 1967-68, the State is paying 85 percent and the LEAs 15 percent.
Description—Assistance to year-round child development projects aimed at the intellectual development of prekindergarten children and improvement of their understanding of the world around them. Health and nutrition needs receive major attention.

Project ABLE (Part of Amendments to Education Laws, Sec. 3602)

Dates—Implemented in spring of 1961.

Approximate level of State funding—$200,000 for first 3 school years; $300,000 for 1964-65; and $500,000 for each of last 3 years.

Method of allotting funds—State provides 50 percent of costs and LEAs 50 percent.

Description—Funds to 28 LEAs for demonstration programs of compensatory education for disadvantaged students from prekindergarten through 12th grade. LEAs receive aid for curricular and program revision over a 5-year period. The three major goals of Project ABLE are: (1) To improve the educational experiences and increase opportunities for the disadvantaged; (2) to help disadvantaged children develop positive attitudes toward education; and (3) to increase number of school staff engaged in teaching the disadvantaged.

Project STEP (Chapter 485 of Education Laws)

Dates—Implemented first in 1961 when funds were provided by the New York State Youth Commission and administered by the Bureau of Guidance. In April 1962, the State legislature began funding this program.

Approximate level of State funding—$200,000 for 1962-63 school year; $300,000 for 1964-65; $500,000 for each of last 3 years.

Method of allotting funds—State pays 50 percent of costs, LEAs 50 percent.

Description—Encourages potential dropouts to remain in school until graduation and assists them in finding full-time employment. State provides both funds and direction to LEAs for 5 years; then the program becomes locally supported.

Scholar Incentive Aid
(Part of Education Laws, Sec. 601A)

Dates—Since 1961. In 1965, a new provision in the eligibility requirements for scholar incentive assistance extended opportunities for higher education to disadvantaged students.

Approximate level of State funding—Total aid program for 1967-68 was $35 million. Aid to disadvantaged students was a part of this.

Method of allotting funds—Eligible students receive from $100 to $500 each when admitted to a college's program for the disadvantaged.

Description—Financial assistance to disadvantaged students in colleges which have special programs for the disadvantaged.

OHIO

House Bill 350
(Referred to as Foundation Program)

Dates—Passed late in 1967; implemented in January 1968.

Approximate level of State funding—$4.8 million for January-June 1968; $10 million scheduled for 1968-69 school year.

Method of allotting funds—Funds are allotted to LEAs on the basis of the number of AFDC children. For January-June 1968, the State paid LEAs about $42 per AFDC child; for 1968-69 school year, costs for the State will average about $100 per child.

Description—Programs limited to those in school buildings that specifically serve the needs of educationally disadvantaged pupils. Title I-type programs are funded.

PENNSYLVANIA

Act 580—Commonwealth Payments to School Districts

Dates—Passed in 1966; implemented in 1967-68 school year.

Approximate level of State funding—$21,606,030 for 1967-68.

Method of allotting funds—Funds provided to LEAs on the basis of a formula: The number of children aged 5-17 in families with annual income of less than $2,000 plus the number of children aged 5-17 in families having an annual income of more than $2,000 from payments from AFDC, multiplied by 90.

Description—State funds are allocated to LEAs in the form of subsidies rather than as grants for specific programs. LEAs are not bound by any limitations in the use of these funds.

Act 54-A

Dates—Passed in 1965; implemented in 1966-67 school year.

Approximate level of State funding—$1 million for 1966-67 school year; $500,000 for 1967-68 school year.

Method of allotting funds—State provides 10 percent; Federal Government and other sources, 90 percent.

Description—Grants to LEAs for pilot demonstration projects ranging from preschool through adult education. These programs can be extensions of, or innovations in, current school programs. They must, however, focus on needs of disadvantaged children and/or adults.

WASHINGTON

Chapter 169 of Budget and Appropriations Bill, Laws of 1965, Extraordinary Session

Dates—Passed in 1965; implemented in 1965-66 school year; renewed in 1967.

Approximate level of State funding—$650,000 annually.

Method of allotting funds—Funds granted to LEAs according to a formula which includes a 0.1 weighting factor for culturally disadvantaged children. The formula: 0.1 x number of culturally disadvantaged x 0.25 x $350 (State per pupil expenditure).

Description—Act provides compensatory education programs similar to those funded under Title I, except funds cannot be used for inservice training and equipment.

WISCONSIN

Chapter 209, Laws of 1967 (Section 6)

Dates—Passed in 1967, implemented February 1968.

Approximate level of State funding—$1.75 million for January-June 1968; $3 million for 1968-69 school year. Additional $1 million will be given to residents of the inner city of Milwaukee to decide how best to improve inner city schools.

Method of allotting funds—Funds allotted only to Milwaukee on the basis of the fixed sum established by the legislature.

Description—Programs designed to meet educational needs for disadvantaged children in the public schools of Milwaukee's "inner core." Some of the programs that can be funded include the hiring of teacher aides, inservice training for teachers, and afterschool tutorial and recreation programs.

APPENDIX C

STATISTICAL SUMMARY

During fiscal year 1967, Title I expenditures exceeded $1 billion. This included not only programs for educationally deprived children in public and nonpublic schools, but also Indian children in Bureau of Indian Affairs schools, the children of migrant farm workers, and handicapped, neglected, and delinquent children in institutions.

Local educational agencies received $974 million in fiscal 1967, about the same as a year earlier. However, there was a significant shift in how the money was used in 1967. Instructional costs rose from one-half the total to nearly two-thirds. At the same time, the proportion spent on equipment and construction dropped markedly—equipment from 21 percent to about 8 percent; construction from 10 to 5 percent.

Also, during the 2nd year of Title I, more money ($829.6 million) went into regular school term programs than into summer programs—83 percent as compared with 76 percent a year earlier. This reflected, to some extent, the fact that school districts were able to initiate Title I programs earlier in the year than had been possible in fiscal 1966.

Both the 1st and 2nd years of Title I saw a concentration of money and services in the lower grades. Grades 1 through 6 accounted for 60 percent of the total participating children for each year. Major emphasis in instruction was placed on reading and English language programs, cultural enrichment, and general compensatory education.

TITLE I EXPENDITURES

$1,011,761,000 Fiscal Year 1967

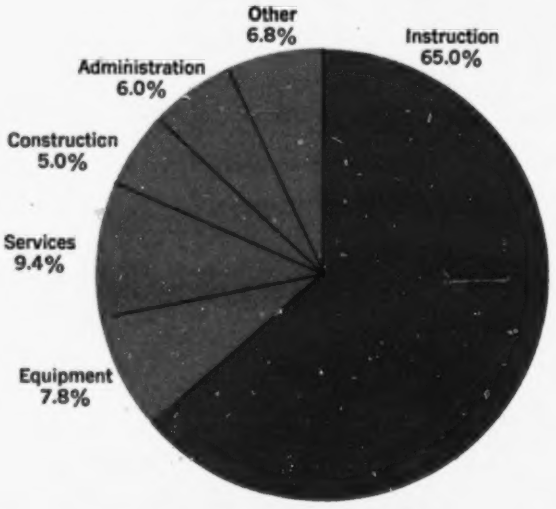
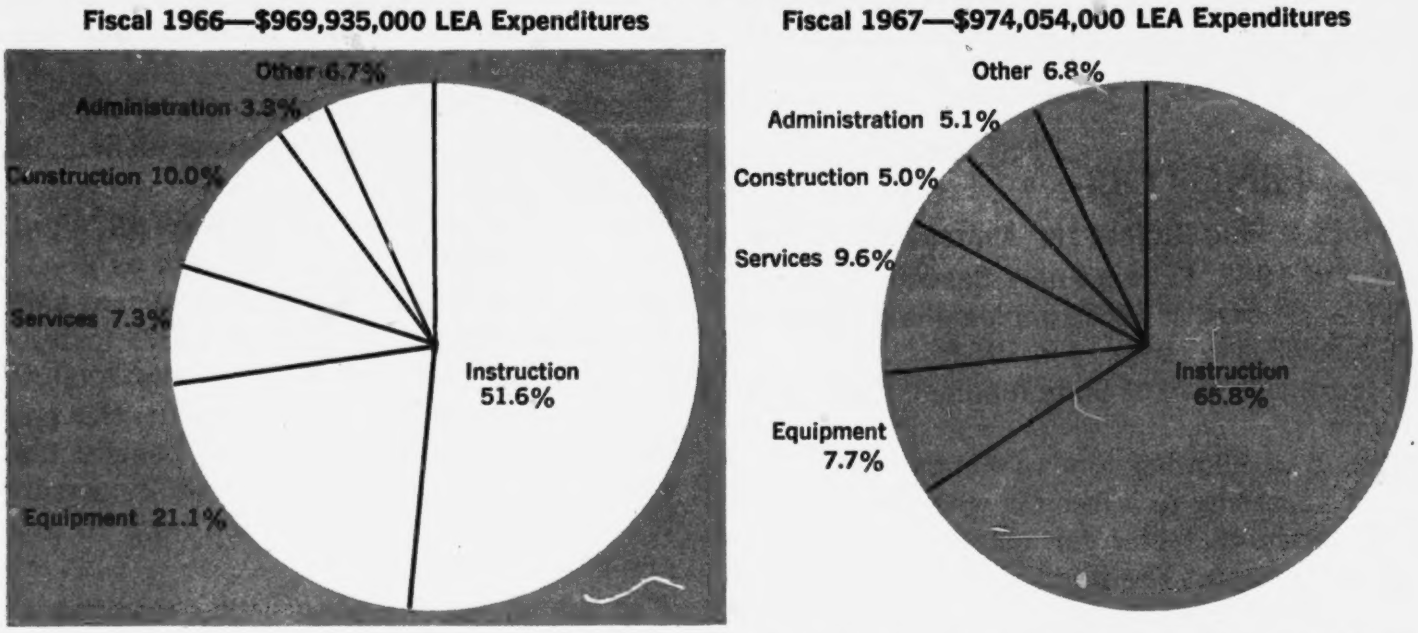


Figure 15

TITLE I EXPENDITURES BY LOCAL EDUCATIONAL AGENCIES

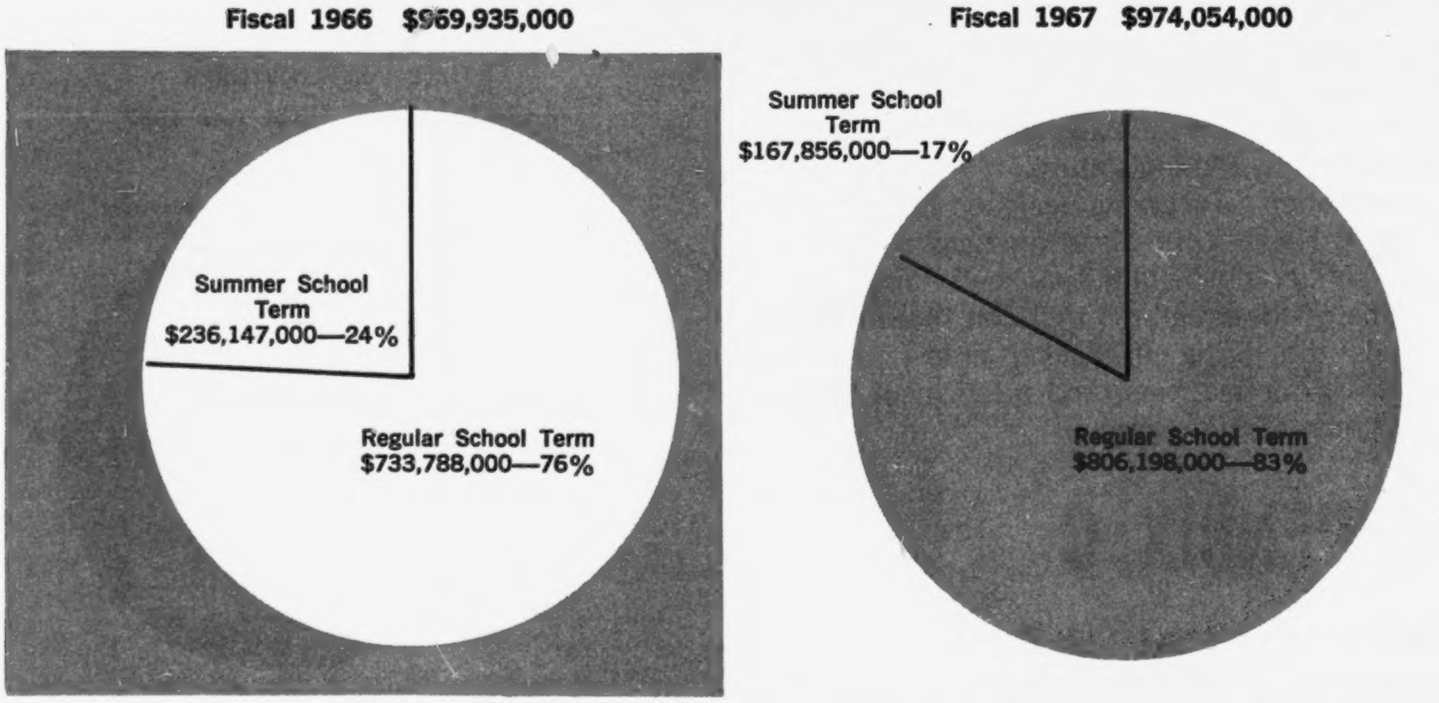

Fiscal 1966—$969,935,000 LEA Expenditures

Fiscal 1967—$974,054,000 LEA Expenditures

Statistics for fiscal year 1966 do not include $11,165,689 expended for State programs for handicapped children under Public Law 89–313 and $6,495,758 for State administration. Fiscal year 1967 excludes $13,578,125 expended for State programs for handicapped children under Public Law 89–313; $9,935,339 for State programs for neglected and delinquent children and children of migratory workers under Public Law 89–750; $4,413,398 for Department of Interior, Bureau of Indian Affairs; and $9,779,863 for State administration.

Figure 16

EXPENDITURES FOR LEA SUMMER SCHOOL PROGRAMS


Fiscal 1966 $969,935,000

Fiscal 1967 $974,054,000

Figure 17

PUPIL PARTICIPATION

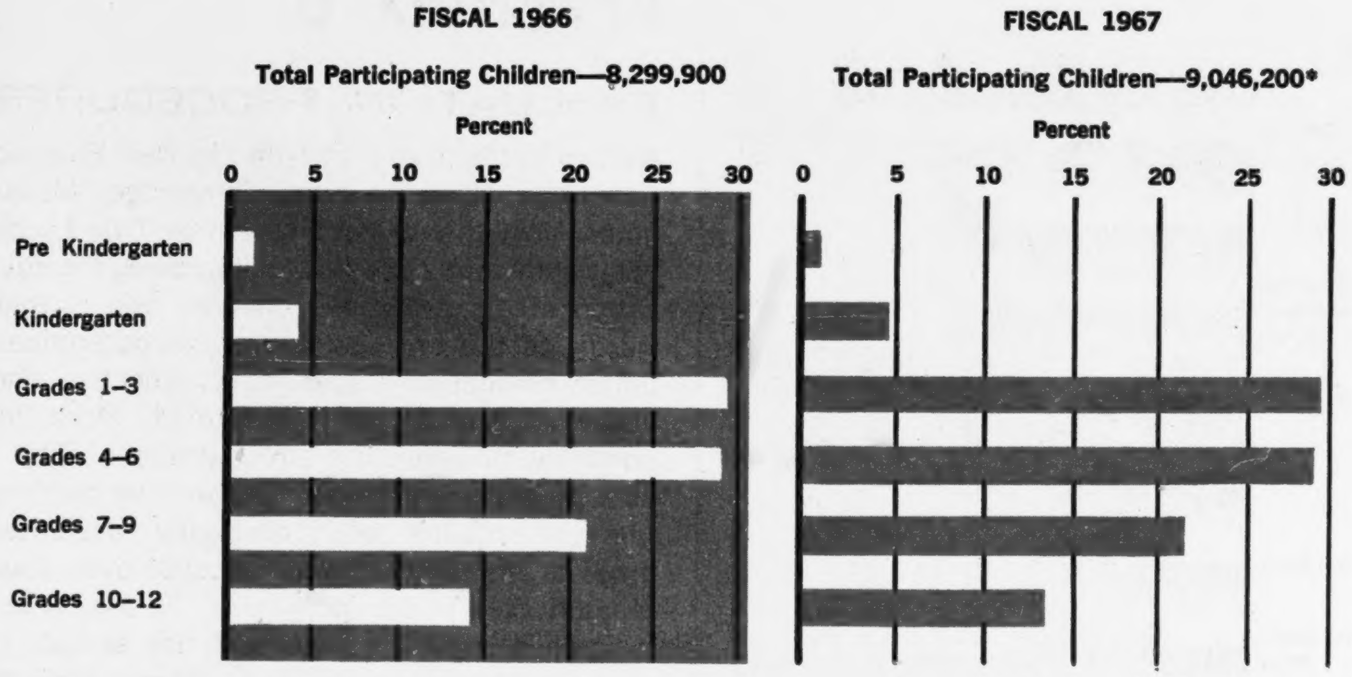
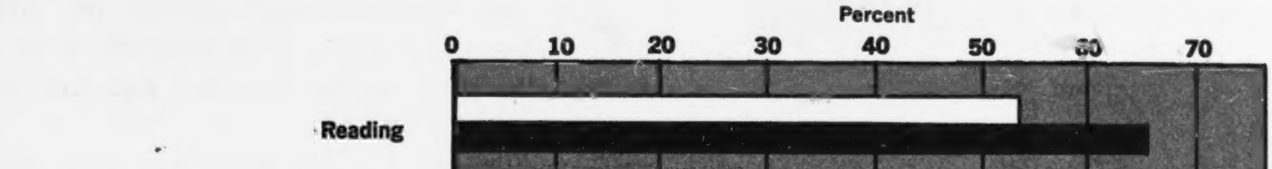


Figure 18

INSTRUCTIONAL AREAS



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[1] Data not collected for general compensatory education in 1967. Data for 1967 represents "other" and includes foreign language, home economics, activities for handicapped children and other.

Figure 19

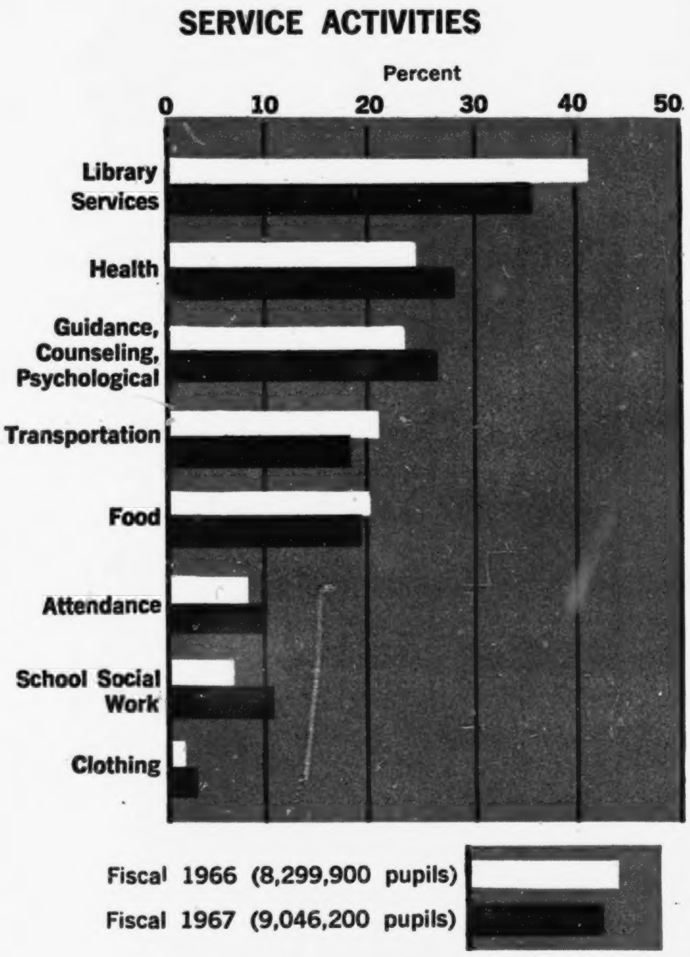

Figure 20

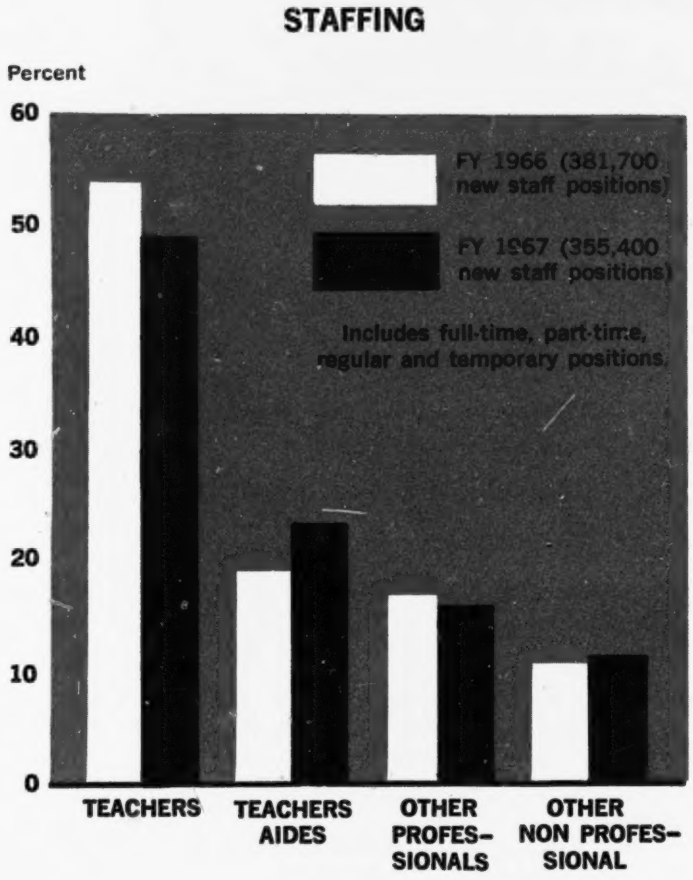

Figure 21

APPENDIX D

EVALUATION PROCEDURES

A study of the impact of Title I by New England Education Data Systems, Cambridge, Mass., noted: "Whether or not a particular Title I project is sufficiently effective in improving the education of disadvantaged children and is thus worthy of the expense cannot be determined unless evaluation is systematic, objective, and above all else properly performed. More importantly, however, the effectiveness of Title I as a program cannot be measured by combining the results of individually evaluated projects, no matter how validly such evaluation is conducted at the local level. To assess the program's impact, a representative sample of projects should be studied. These projects should be measured systematically in terms of some common objectives. Their differences and similarities should be carefully documented and the instruments used for data collection and measurement should be both compatible and properly administered. It is in this way that the degree of project and program success can be reliable."

Title I evaluation, however, is not amenable to strict experimental conditions. All educationally disadvantaged children are included in designed projects. It is not the intent of the legislation to withhold help from disadvantaged children for experimental or research reasons. A child is included or excluded according to his need, as assessed by his teacher and his school in the locally designated target areas, and not on the basis of a sophisticated sampling procedure.

The Questions

In reporting on the second year's evaluation of Title I, the Office of Education sought to answer three questions:

1. What happened to the $1 billion appropriated by Congress to raise the educational level of (a) disadvantaged children from low-income areas; (b) migrant children; and (c) institutionalized handicapped, neglected and delinquent children?
2. What activities or practices seem the most promising?

3. What success has Title I had in improving the educational attainment of educationally deprived children?

The answers to these questions must come from the State and local educational agencies (LEAs) which administer Title I programs.

For this reason, OE sent to the States specific questions which it wished to have answered, and the States in turn requested this information from the local school districts. Reports then came from the LEAs to the State educational agencies and on to the Office of Education.

The Response

The States and local districts provided both descriptive and evaluative data on various aspects of Title I. They included the most pressing educational needs of disadvantaged children, the most prevalent project objectives, the involvement of nonpublic school children in Title I, and the most effective activities undertaken to develop and utilize staff.

Specific numerical data were provided in four areas designated by the Office of Education. These were: (1) Attendance rates, (2) dropout rates, (3) percentage of graduates continuing their education beyond high school, and (4) pupil performance on the more widely used standardized tests.

Local reports, like the local school districts, varied greatly in size, scope, and quality; but all reflected an increased sophistication in evaluation techniques. The LEAs this year measured the effectiveness of different program components not only by achievement tests, but by rating scales, attitude inventories, and questionnaires. They obtained responses from pupils and in some instances from principals, teachers, and parents.

The Analysis

In treating the local reports, OE focused on those approaches reported successful in attaining Title I objectives. OE looked for ideas that seemed to be working—as evidenced by concrete evaluative data. What approaches, for example, were successful in involving parents in Title I; promoting a closer working relationship between public and nonpublic school officials; creating favorable attitudes among Title I staffs; disseminating information about new teaching techniques; overcoming the language barrier of Spanish-speaking children; keeping potential dropouts in school; and obtaining maximum use of paraprofessionals?

In analyzing data on test scores, attendance, dropouts, and continuing education, OE relied on the State evaluation reports—that is, State aggregations of local data. To be considered usable, the data had to meet certain minimum criteria. In the case of attendance and dropout rates, and percentages of graduates continuing their education beyond high school, the chief requirement was the availability of complete data for the school years involved.

Problems of Obtaining Representative Data

A major predicament facing OE's Title I evaluation efforts was that of sampling. Problems arose from the many varied characteristics of apparently similar programs. In reading, for example, adequate sampling would require more comprehensive—indeed, more precise—descriptions of what goes on in each program. Test scores are not enough. The evaluator must be aware of the extent of the remedial service offered, the pupil-teacher ratio, the hours of instruction per day and per week, and the techniques and materials used.

In many school districts, Title I children participate in three types of educational programs —regular school, Title I, and some other type of compensatory program.

Too frequently schools either use an inappropriate measure to evaluate a project or restrict the range of projects to those measurable by existing instruments. The objectives may have been stated in language that does not facilitate measuring the extent to which there has been achievement gain or whether the objective of the project has been met. In addition, the needs of most Title I children are too frequently incapable of description by currently available measurement instruments. Projects concerned with self-image fall into this category.

Also, evaluation on an annual basis implies at least that all project objectives—and all projects—require the same time interval for measurement purposes. This is not necessarily true; for example, the data on reading achievement versus the data on dropout rates or continuing education. Gains in reading or an increase in the percentage of high school graduates furthering their education take considerably longer to assess than do dropout rates.

Furthermore, there is a distinct possibility that all three factors are interrelated.

Problems of Collecting Educational Data

There are over 50,000,000 children and 2,000,000 teachers in public and private schools in the 50 States and outlying areas. More than 20,000 school systems operate more than 25,000 high schools from which 2.5 million youth graduated in 1966-67. The sheer size of the number of units from which information is needed for sound evaluation procedures makes a big problem for data collection. Add to this the absence of uniform accounting and reporting procedures as well as variations in terminology.

Although OE has been trying systematically to improve the data reporting procedures at the State and local levels, much remains to be done. Federal reporting requirements have traditionally focused on obtaining the number of pupils, teachers, or classrooms, and some cost data, rather than on measuring the effectiveness of educational programs.

In addition, there is still much opposition to the collection of census-type data involving participants in federally funded educational programs. Yet this information is necessary if the governmental units having responsibility for administering these programs are to measure the extent to which their responsibility is being discharged. Lack of data on individual pupils—caused partly by the high mobility rate of our society, especially low-income families—makes normative studies difficult and long range survey almost impossible.

Treatment of Test Data

With the few exceptions where statewide testing programs exist, there was great variance within States—and much more between States—in the types of tests used, the dates of administration, and the grades tested. To complicate matters further, different scoring systems were used for the various tests. Scoring services or schools reported grade equivalents, raw scores, percentile scores, stanine scores, or other standard scores. And all too often these scores were reported too late.

To cope with the many discrepancies in the reported test data, OE evaluators focused on quarter distributions for the most part. In order to include as many data as possible, certain assumptions had to be made. First, it was assumed that the LEAs used the publisher's form for spring and fall testing; and second, that variance within each season would balance out if the tests were combined by quarter distribution after analysis of the separate tests showed few marked deviations from the aggregated quarter distribution of all tests. These assumptions are comparable with those included in the Dayton analysis, mentioned in Chapter III.

OE required that the test data include at least 100 students in both pretests and posttests. Most State reports were based on data from a relatively few LEAs. Information provided by States indicated that State educational agencies (SEAs) reported data only from those school districts that provided usable pretest and posttest data. Accordingly, the test data often were not representative of the individual States and the aggregation of States is not claimed to be representative of all Title I pupils. Only carefully designed local evaluation could estimate the effect of specific Title I activities on individual children.

Two consultants to OE also made analyses of LEA reports, and their discussions are included in the text in Chapter III.

DR. C. MITCHELL DAYTON

The Dayton material was based upon evaluation reports of the 100 largest school districts in the Nation. Analysis was restricted to the achievement areas of reading and arithmetic. The information was compiled by local educational agencies and submitted to the Office of Education. These reports contained descriptions of Title I programs and information on the achievement of groups of participating students.

Because reading received the greatest emphasis in Title I projects and the LEAs reported the largest amount of information about reading, this subject became the focus of Dr. Dayton's analysis. He utilized: (1) Beginning-of-school-year (pretest) and end-of-school-year (posttest) average grade-equivalent scores for participating students, and (2) pretest and posttest frequencies of student placements in the quarters of national norm groups.

Dr. Dayton's analysis was subject to the following limitations:

1. The sample of LEAs actually included in any one data summary may differ from the sample of LEAs included in other data summaries. For example, a project involving specialized reading services or a reading laboratory may have operated in one LEA at grades 2, 3, and 4, but a similar project in a different LEA may have spanned grades 3 through 8.
2. There was no consistency in achievement testing instruments utilized by LEAs. Only published standardized achievement tests were used by Dr. Dayton but these were numerous.
3. Dr. Dayton sought comparability among different tests to the broadest possible extent by using either percentile-type scores or grade-equivalent-type scores. While it is not possible to assert absolute equivalence of percentile ranks among tests, or to assert absolute equivalence of grade-equivalent scores, there has been no satisfactory alternative to utilizing such scores as if they were equivalent within the framework of this report. To establish truly equivalent scores would require a massive testing effort. There are many instances where different standardized testing instruments were used at different grade levels within the same LEA. Thus, the problem of establishing equivalence was compounded. The assumption of equality of percentile or grade-equivalent units, while lending a certain lack of precision to the data, was not considered to threaten the validity of major conclusions derived from the data. To a certain extent, differences in, say, grade-equivalent unit size among different testing instruments should average out over the relatively large number of school districts summarized in this report.
4. The LEAs controlled the selection of both students to participate in projects and data to be reported. The sampling factors were generally not described within the LEA submissions. Students selected for evaluation purposes may not, in all cases, have been truly representative of students participating in Title I projects within a given LEA.
5. Since data to be included in this report must have been obtained on a pretest and posttest basis, LEAs faced additional testing requirements. In many cases, they chose to posttest relatively limited samples of participating students. Thus, complete pretest and posttest data were often available for only a fraction of the number of students actually participating in a Title I program.
6. No attempt was made to report comparisons between the academic achievement of students participating in Title I projects and that of other students in the same LEA who were nonparticipants. Relatively few LEAs reported achievement data in comparable form. All achievement data concerned students participating in Title I projects and were compared with national norm groups. If the focus were on the individual LEA, this procedure could result in a bias since the general level of achievement in the LEA as a whole may be quite different from the norm groups. However, from the viewpoint of giving a national picture of the impact of Title I projects, the national norm groups were the relevant ones to use. Also, by using pretest and posttest data, the participating Title I students are made to serve as their own control in the sense that pretest-posttest comparisons provide an independent measure of student growth in achievement.
7. For LEAs that reported data on several consecutive grade levels of participating students, it was possible to project the achievement of students by utilizing the actual pretest-to-posttest average gains and then assuming that the gains would be cumulative over several years of operation of a Title I project. In developing this projected rate, it was assumed that the Title I project would continue and that the impact would be cumulative at the same rate of gain actually experienced during the 1st year of Title I. That is, the pro-

jected values were obtained by successively adding the adjusted 10-month gains for each grade level. This procedure undoubtedly leads to somewhat optimistic judgments since high rates of gain in achievement over relatively short test-retest intervals will not necessarily be maintained over a student's schooling. Thus, the projections in the text should be interpreted as indicating the maximum growth potential in the activities implemented with Title I funding. Only if children are followed on a longitudinal basis over a period of school years can the validity of such projections be tested. Realistically, this can be done by the LEA. It is one of the aspects of evaluation which should be done locally.

DR. JOHN T. DAILEY

Dr. Dailey's concern was with the gap in average reading achievement level between elementary schools of low socioeconomic status and elementary schools of high socioeconomic status. Achievement test data on a school-by-school basis, along with appropriate indexes of socioeconomic status for those schools, were provided by a number of large city school systems. To measure the gap in average reading level between low socioeconomic status and higher status schools, a common scale was constructed and the various test means were converted to the common scale. This was done for each set of school means for a given grade in a given school in a given school system.

Schools were ordered according to the range of the average test scores in a particular grade, e.g., grade 5. The difference between the highest mean and the lowest mean, or the range, was divided by 30 to produce the scale unit. The school with the lowest mean score in, say, the 5th grade was ranked 0; the school with the highest mean score in grade 5 was ranked 30. Each of the remaining schools was then assigned an interval on the 0-30 scale according to the number of scale units above the lowest mean score as follows: From each mean, the score of the bottom of the range was subtracted, then the difference was multiplied by 30, and the product was divided by the range.

In City X, for example, the 10 elementary schools reported average 5th-grade reading test scores of 7.5, 6.5, 6.2, 5.3, and 4.5, 5.0, 4.7, 4.5, 4.3, and 3.9. The first five are high-status schools; the last are low-status schools. The range from the highest scoring schools to the lowest is 7.5–3.9, or a difference of 3.6. The corrected scores or the 30-point scale then become:

Low status	High status
3.9 = 0	4.5 = 5
4.3 = 3	5.3 = 11
4.5 = 5	6.2 = 19
4.7 = 7	6.5 = 22
5.0 = 9	7.5 = 30

The median on the scale is 5 for the low-status school, 19 for the high status, a difference of 14 points on the scale.

This is a relative, not an absolute scale. No suggestions can be made as to differences in achievement levels between cities. However, the scale does equalize the distributions of the schools. It makes possible the aggregation of scores from various tests given to different grade levels at different times, when the purpose is to determine the gap in average performance of Title I schools as compared with schools of any other classification in the school system. It is possible to make meaningful comparisons of the relative performance of students in Title I schools and other schools even though the schools use different tests. The mean converted scores tend to be relatively similar within a given school system across a wide range of grades, times of testing, and types of reading or general achievement tests.

When this scale is used, the performance gap is independent of performance level. In some cases both low- and high-status schools showed increases in reading on posttests while the relative gap on the 0-30 scale increased. A school system could have a minimum gap at a low absolute performance level or a greater gap at a higher performance level. It could also have a high gap at a low performance level or a low gap at a high level.

Summary

Any evaluation of Title I should be concerned with long-range as well as short-range objectives. Unfortunately, the empirical information needed for a long-range analysis is not yet available, and continued postponement in obtaining data only postpones the date when accurate and meaningful evaluation can be performed. A thorough evaluation would demand that information be collected and analyzed on specific pupils in Title I programs and their non-Title I classmates. Pupil information must be related to school, family, community, and other environmental information. Equally important, the program data must be complete, precise, and comparable so that pupil performance may be related to Title I objectives.

After reviewing findings from nine large cities, Technomics, Inc. reported to OE: "One of the most innovative and beneficial aspects of P.L. 89-10 is its requirement that the effect of these monies on the educational process be measured or evaluated at periodic intervals." This requirement forces school systems to plan ahead and to make decisions to continue or drop new and/or established programs. Currently, the information necessary for OE to benefit fully from the Title I evaluation requirement is not available. Information on the success or failure of individual programs should be fed back so that existing efforts can be improved. For a number of reasons, the information currently provided is insufficient. Much of it cannot be used either for program design or evaluation. OE is presently unable to consider precisely the effect of specific activities, the effect of child, family, and neighborhood characteristics, or the effect of school-related factors on the educational achievement and attainment of disadvantaged children. The data collectors must recognize that reasonable time periods have to be taken into account to allow for change to occur. If reading retardation, for example, is caused by a poor attitude, then achievement gain will be slow until such attitudes change.

Also, the evaluation of a single Title I project in isolation from the rest of the school—or school district—is a formidable if not impossible task. Data must come from non-Title I programs and participants as well as from the particular Title I classroom.

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